THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For DECEMBER, 1805.

ART. I. *Collections towards the History and Antiquities of the County of Hereford.* By John Duncumb, A.M. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 604. 3l. 3s. Boards. Evans. 1804.

IT appears that the public are indebted, for the materials from which the present ~~publication~~ history has been formed, to the pecuniary assistance of the Duke of Norfolk, as well as to the labours of Mr. Duncumb; and we feel pleasure in stating that, as far as it has proceeded, it does credit to the munificence of the noble patron, and to the knowlege and skill of the industrious compiler. In every department in which his undertaking obliges the latter to exhibit himself, he has well discharged his duty; he has properly arranged and carefully digested the documents with which he has been furnished; and his narrative throughout is neat, uniform, and (as far as we can judge) correct.

We coincide in a great degree with the observations made by Mr. D. on the merits and circumstances of his subject, when he says;

'The county of Hereford, although replete with a variety of materials to attract the researches of the Antiquary and the Historian, has hitherto so far escaped their notice, that no regular account of it has ever been submitted to the Public. As the ground on which Caractacus, and the brave Silures so nobly fought, *pro aris et focis*, against the Roman invaders, and as the frontier, during the long continued wars between England and Wales, it presents an important series of national occurrences; whilst as a province, distinguished from the earliest dates of civilized society, by the residence of ancient and honourable families, holding their possessions by various and peculiar tenures; as a district fertile in its produce, and abounding in scenery of the most beautiful description;—it contains a fund of information, which, if properly collected and arranged, could not fail to be generally gratifying.'

We would here remark that, when the Heptarchy sunk in the kingdom of England, and the antient Britons became tributary, the animosities of the hostile nations were, for the most

part displayed in struggles which were on too small a scale to rescue from oblivion the names of the leaders, or to transmit to future times the events which distinguished them: the misery, it is true, was sufficiently intense, but it was too limited in its extent to attract the regards of posterity. Even before Mercia disappeared as an independent kingdom, the brave Silures had ceased to be a distinct people. After Offa had extended his boundary, and fixed his residence in the centre of the county which is the subject of this work, we read indeed of horrible incursions; yet scarcely any thing occurs in these parts which merits the name of war. Previously to that period, there had been a long series of fierce and bloody contests for national independence on the one hand, and for dominion and territory on the other: but unfortunately they are involved in fable, and history is almost totally silent in regard to them.

In what the writer terms a General Introduction, he enters considerably into the civil and military transactions of that part of the island in which this district is placed; this is followed by its geography and natural history; and he then details the military and civil history of its capital, which brings to a close the present volume: the next, we presume, will consist of similar views of each division of the county.

According to the example of his predecessors, Mr. D. conducts his readers as far back as he is able into the darkness of time: but he possesses too well formed a mind to descend to any particulars which preceded the invasion of Julius Cæsar. In the first chapter of his Introduction, he expatiates on the period which intervened between the first landing, and the final departure of the Romans. He appears to us materially to under-rate the knowlege which the Druids possessed. The political power which this fraternity exercised, the systematic discipline which united the body together, and on which their unlimited authority was founded, the affinity of their tenets with those of the Oriental sects, and the reputation which the order in Britain had attained, (it being consulted for instruction by the youth of Gaul,)—these considerations, and the testimonies of antient writers, incline us not to set so low an estimate on the attainments of the Druids as has been assigned by Mr. Duncumb. Nor ought it to be forgotten that their language is indicative of no mean intellectual culture; since in the estimation of good judges it is in a high degree energetic and copious, and there is no reason for supposing that it has subsequently undergone any material improvement.

The author thus describes the battle which terminated the career of the brave Caractacus; and he makes observations on the site of it, which prove not only that he neatly retails what the

the labours of others have placed within easy reach, but that he illustrates difficult points by researches of his own:

'Caractacus, darting through the ranks, exclaimed—"*Remember, Britons, this day is to decide whether we shall be slaves or free!—Recollect and imitate the atchievements of our ancestors, whose valour expelled Julius Cæsar from our coasts, rescued their country from paying tribute to foreigners, and saved their wives and daughters from infamy and violation!*"

'Inflamed by this address, every one shouted with applause, and bound themselves by their peculiar oaths to conquer or to perish.

'Ostorius was staggered by the resolute appearance and formidable position of his adversaries; but his troops eagerly demanded battle, and exclaimed, that Roman valour could surmount every obstacle. Observing, therefore, what points were most proper for the attack, he led on his army, and forded the river without difficulty: but before they could reach the rampart of stone, the Romans suffered severely from the darts of the Britons, and success long appeared doubtful. At length, forming the *testudo*, or *shell*, by locking their shields together over their heads, they reached the wall, and making several breaches in it, brought on a close engagement. Unprovided with helmets or breast plates, the Britons could not withstand the attack, but fell back towards the summit of the hill. A few desperate efforts from this point could not avail them, and victory declared for the Romans. The wife and daughter of Caractacus were taken on the field of battle, and his brothers surrendered themselves prisoners: he himself escaped into the country of the Brigantes, and claimed the protection of their queen, Cartismandua; but dreading the resentment of the Romans, which had been so recently directed against her territories, she was induced to deliver him bound to Ostorius.

'The site of this important battle is not agreed on by antiquaries and historians: some writers suppose it to have taken place on the banks of the Severn, above Montgomery; on those of the Virnew or Tannat, two of the most northern branches; or even on those of the Dee itself: but in opposition to these suggestions, it may be remarked, that some of these positions would transfer the battle to the country of the Cangi, whose territories are not represented to have been invaded on this occasion.

'Humphrey Lloyd was of opinion, that it was fought on a British post, called *Caer-Ddynod*, which is situated on the Alven, a small river falling into the north side of the Dee. To this idea, General Roy opposed the improbability, that Caractacus should have given up such a tract of country, affording many excellent positions, without making a stand until he came near the extremity, with the sea at a small distance in his rear. It may also be added, that the country of the Silures would in that case have been left open to attack, at a time when it was exhausted of all its means of defence.

'Camden thought that the high hill of *Caer-Caradoc*, in Shropshire, about six miles west from Leintwardine, was the scene of the battle in question. The similarity of the name to that of the British chief, either suggested or adds weight to the supposition. Caer-Caradoc evidently contained a British post, which was situated on the

top, by nature not easily accessible, and rendered stronger by art. So far it agrees with the account given by Tacitus; but, on the other hand, it may be observed, that the inconsiderable rivulet called Chapel-brook, which passes Caer-Caradoc almost at its source, could present no obstacle to the Romans: nor can the name be admitted to be decisive, as a second entrenchment bears the same appellation, near Church-Stretton, in Shropshire; and a third in the parish of Sellack, in this county: these might possibly have been occupied by Caractacus on former occasions, or so called in honour of that chief.

'General Roy is much inclined to prefer Coxwall-Knoll to either of the places which have been mentioned: a careful examination has led the present enquirer fully to adopt that idea, and respectfully to suggest, whether, with a reasonable allowance for the conciseness of style peculiar to Tacitus, and for some partiality which he may have felt for his countrymen, the situation and other circumstances of Coxwall-Knoll do not strikingly correspond with the account given by the Roman historian. Coxwall-Knoll is a single eminence, situated in a beautiful valley near Brampton-Bryan. It is luxuriantly covered with wood; one part of it, that towards the south is within the limits of Herefordshire, whilst that towards the north is within those of Shropshire. On the top is a very strong entrenchment of British construction, and of much greater extent than that at Caer-Caradoc. The access is difficult on all sides: on the south "an artificial terrace is cut along the face of the hill," in front of the entrenchment; and the river Teme flows below in the same direction. The Teme continually varies in its depth and impetuosity, according to the proportion of rain received into its channel from the adjacent hills. Immediately opposite, and at the distance of one mile, with the river between them, is the Roman post of Brandon, "a single square work, with four ports," more strong towards Coxwall than in any other part.

'In the supposed line of march by Caractacus and Ostorius, the latter would occupy Brandon, when the former had retreated to Coxwall: thus situated, the formidable position of the Britons, and the obstacles to be encountered in attacking them, were all within view of the Romans: they demanded and were led to the combat; fording the river, they reached the rampart, which probably stood on the artificial terrace described by General Roy, and finally defeated the Britons in the entrenchment above. To these conjectures, which are offered with the utmost deference, it may be opposed, that the Teme near Coxwall is but an inconsiderable river, having a smooth and gravelly bottom, and so little water, except when flooded from the hills, that troops may march across it in line, for two or three miles together. To this it is replied, that all rivers suffer some decrease, in proportion as the country through which they pass, becomes more cultivated; that the words of Tacitus—"præfluebat amnis *vado incerto*"—evidently apply to a river subject to frequent variations; that no difficulties were experienced when the fording took place—"amnemque haud difficulter evadit;"—and that probably the Romans exaggerated the obstacles, to increase their own reputation.

'It may be farther objected, that Caractacus is stated to have chosen a situation in all respects favourable to himself, and unfavourable to the Romans—"cuncta nobis importuna et suis in melius,"—whereas Coxwall, standing singly in the plain, afforded no retreat in case of disaster. To this it is merely replied, that, notwithstanding the escape of Caractacus himself, the capture of his wife and family in the field, evidently proves, that the means of retreat must have been very difficult.

'Finally, it may be urged, that Herefordshire was included in the territories of the Silures; whilst Tacitus, and other subsequent writers of note, have hitherto admitted that the battle was fought in the district of the Ordovices. No decisive proof, however, it is presumed, can be given, that the boundaries of the present Herefordshire were the precise boundaries of the Silures: on the contrary, the northern part of the county, including a large extent adjoining Coxwall, was not incorporated with Herefordshire until the reign of Henry VIII.; and in its original state, it is not unreasonable to suppose, that it may have belonged to the Ordovices.

'On these grounds, the opinion of the present enquirer is in favour of Coxwall: he has endeavoured to state his reasons with conciseness and candour; and the public will exercise their indisputable right of deciding for themselves.'

We have no knowlege of more than two Roman stations being situated within the limits of the present county of Hereford, viz. *Magna Castra* and *Ariconium*. The author very ably supports the opinion of Horsley, that the former was placed where the present Kenchester now stands, and the latter at Weston-sub-Penyard, in the neighbourhood of Ross.

The next period considered by Mr. Duncumb extends from the epoch of the departure of the Romans to the Norman conquest.

We do not deny the justness of the succeeding observations:

'The Silures were subject to the Roman authority about two hundred and fifty years; other parts of the island about thirty more—a period too short to have effected, under the circumstances already noticed, a total change of their disposition and character, or to have obliterated the memory of their former independence. Released from the power of the Romans, they naturally rejected, as hostile, every habit which they had imposed: impatient of controul, and strangers to the arts of legislation, they were incapable of cementing a general union, or of forming a wise and stable government. Different opinions led to different conduct; and the removal of the Roman yoke, introduced more serious evils than had even attended its imposition.'

We cannot repress an opinion, however, that a material fact relative to this point has been overlooked by the author; namely, the circumstance of a common religion; which, we think, must have had a great effect in cementing the union between the two people,—certainly much more than the civil connection

standing alone could have produced. What progress the Britons had made in civilization during the Roman domination, and in what proportion they had become Christian, are points which the remains of the period are not adequate to materially illustrate; and the tales of subsequent ecclesiastical writers are such as engage little attention.

Offa, the powerful king of Mercia, who afterward subjected his country to the payment of Peter-pence, first deprived the Welsh of the county of Hereford; and he came to reside within a few miles of its present capital. A dreadful incursion was made into it as late as the reign of Edward the Confessor, by Gryffyth Prince of Wales, and Algar Earl of Chester, the latter of whom had been banished from England; they ravaged the whole county, and sacked the city, leaving in it, according to the Welsh chronicles, nothing but "blood and ashes:" but Harold was ordered by Edward to avenge this injury, in which he succeeded.—The author concludes this part of the work with an extract from Domesday Book, enumerating the civil divisions of the county, and the names of the then proprietors of the soil.

The next chapter carries the history down to the end of the reign of Henry VII.

We read of destructive ravages committed in these parts by the Welsh, during nearly the whole of this period. Llewelyn joined his forces to those of the English barons, but his interference proved fatal to the remaining independence of his country:

'The independence of the Britons was now drawing to a close, and they were constrained to make peace with Henry, on condition that their Prince Llewelin, and his successors, should hold the principality of Wales of the King of England and his successors; and that all barons in Wales should hold their baronies and lands of Llewelin and his successors *in capite*, and do homage and fealty to Llewelin, who should do homage for the whole to the King of England. It may be imagined, that this was not done without extreme reluctance, on the part of the Britons: but their humiliation was not yet completed; for Edward I. afterwards invaded them with an army too powerful to be resisted with success; and after the death of Llewelin, who was slain in battle by Mortimer, all Wales was reduced in subjection to the crown of England. The only attempt to recover their independence was made seven years afterwards, by Mael Gwyn Vychan; and it terminated in his imprisonment and death at Hereford. As an example of terror to his countrymen, he was dragged to the place of execution at the tails of horses, and hanged with two of his accomplices.'

These parts suffered in after times from the incursions of Glendour.

The

The Lacys, the Mortimers, and other families of this county, yielded to the mania of the crusades, and embarked in those eventful expeditions: it shared also in the glories of Crecy and Agincourt, in which several nobles and knights of this district were distinguished.

In the struggles between the houses of York and Lancaster, only one battle, that of Mortimer's cross, in which Edward was victorious, and in which Owen Tudor the husband of the Queen Dowager was taken, was fought within the limits of Herefordshire: Owen was beheaded in its capital.—On this occasion, mention is made by the author of a description of persons, of whom frequent notice is taken in our histories:

'The Norman nobles and others, who settled on the borders of Wales, acquired the name of *Lords Marchers,* and were styled *Marchiones Walliæ,* in the Red-Book of the Exchequer, long before the title of Marquis (which was introduced in the reign of Richard II.) had any precedency amongst the nobility of England. They were generally barons who sat in Parliament; and there was also a Lord Warden of the Marches, whose jurisdiction appears to have resembled that of our Lord Lieutenants: "15 Johan: Rex omnibus ballivis com: Stafford: Salop: &c. sciatis quod commissimus dilecto et fideli nostro Johanni Marescallo, Marchiam nostram Walliæ custodiend: quamdiu nobis placuerit, et ideo vobis mandamus roganti quatenùs consilium et auxilium vestrum, eidem Johanni diligenter impendeatis, ad marchiam nostram custodiendam," &c.

'In the reign of Henry III. Humphrey Bohun, Earl of Hereford and Essex, had the custody of the Marches committed to him. The Lords Marchers, of whom were the Mortimers, Cliffords, Turbervilles, and others of this county, had particular laws in their baronies; and all suits between their tenants, were commenced and concluded before them: but if a question arose concerning the barony itself, or the title to it, the cause was referred to the cognizance of the king's courts. Their authority was not held under a formal grant from the crown, but was rather connived at by the prince, and arose, as a wise and necessary measure, out of their particular situations. Nor could their privileges be fixed to any determinate precinct, as their possessions varied in extent at different periods, and under different circumstances. The Lords were entitled to the goods and chattels of all their tenants who died intestate; and a Lord Marcher, under pretence of that custom, having seized on the goods of William de Hastings, *chevalier,* who held of the crown *in capite,* the king directed his writ to the sheriff of Herefordshire, commanding him to summon Thomas de Aston, William de Frome, and David ap Howel, "to inquire into the matter, and certify the same." The Lords Marchers claimed a right of finding silver spears to support the canopy, on all coronations; and they exercised that privilege at the coronation of Eleanor, queen of Henry III.

'When powerful efforts were made to reduce the Britons, the Lords Marchers viewed them with a degree of jealousy; they foresaw

that the complete subjugation of Wales would lead to a curtailment of their own authority, and, therefore, they did not always co-operate sincerely with the crown on these occasions. This particularly appeared when the last Prince of Wales was subdued by Edward I.: for after the death of Llewelin, "a note was found concealed in his sleeve, couched in obscure terms, and with feigned names, from which it might be plainly gathered, that several noblemen on the borders of Wales were not well pleased with the king's proceedings." But having fully succeeded in his design, Edward divided Wales into counties, and introduced many of our English laws and customs throughout the principality.

'The marches not being included in this division, became afterwards the scene of much irregularity and outrage. A court of judicature was, therefore, instituted for that particular district; and several noblemen and others successively resided at Ludlow Castle, in Shropshire, as Lords President of the Marches, in all the splendour of royalty, until the dissolution of the court by act of parliament in the first year of the reign of William and Mary. The preamble to the act stated, that the powers of the Lords President had been much abused, and that the institution "had become a great grievance to the subject." Amongst these grievances, were the mal-practices of the attornies and inferior officers of the court, "whereby," as the record states, "justice had lacked due execution, and the inhabitants had been sundry ways most grievously vexed and molested, as also by long delays of suits, and new exactions of fees, greatly impoverished, so that the court, which was in the beginning erected for the ease and relief of the inhabitants, was become to them, through such abuses, most grevious and intolerable."

'The superior members of the court were, a lord president, a vice-president, a chief justice, and council, among whom were many of the nobility resident in the several counties bordering on the Marches; subordinate officers were, a clerk of the council, clerk of the signet, keeper of the castle, gentleman porter, serjeants at arms, messengers, and a variety of others.'

We think that the industry of Mr. Duncumb would not have been ill directed, had it been employed in collecting and ascertaining the nature and extent of the jurisdiction exercised by these dread magistrates; and particularly those of the court at Ludlow, which was not abolished till after the revolution, long subsequent to the creation of the regular Welsh jurisdictions by the act of Henry VIII.

The curious record of the return made by Herefordshire on the demand by Henry I. of the feudal aid for the marriage of his daughter, is judiciously inserted in this part of the work. It throws great light on the state of property in the county at that period.

Chapter IV. brings the account to our own times; and here we meet with a very interesting document, namely a copy of the return made by the sheriff, of the levy of ship money

money in this county: stating, under the classification of the Hundreds, the name of every parish, and the sum at which it was assessed. We are next furnished with short sketches of the persons who have derived title from the capital of the county; the Fitzosbornes, the Milos, the Bohuns, the Plantagenets, the Staffords, and the Devreuxs: with the high fame and exploits of many of whom, our early history is replete. To the parts which dwell on the geography and natural history of the county, and its domestic economy and scenery, as containing less of novelty, we shall be contented with merely referring our readers. The author has incorporated with his account, the interesting facts and conclusions which he found in the writings of Mr. T. A. Knight.

Remote from the court of England, separated in the direct line of communication from its other dominions by a ridge of lofty hills, and cut off from all intercourse with Wales by difference of language, and a spirit of fierce hostility, this insulated state would, it is natural to suppose, retard the advances of the human mind; and we believe that facts which warrant this inference are not wanting: but the author, fair and candid as we admit him to be, yet being resident if not born within its precincts, cannot be expected to be very alert in his search of them, nor very forward to point them out. His report, however, of its peculiar customs, not a little countenances the view of the matter here taken.

Among other practices of the common people, Mr. D. mentions that of *Visiting Wells:* on which he observes that

'The heathens are known to have paid adoration to wells and fountains: the Roman Catholic church also adopted this practice, and hence many wells are still termed *Holy Wells*, or retain the name of some saint to whom they were dedicated. St. Ethelbert's Well, in the city of Hereford, and many others in different parts of the county are still in some repute for their supposed medicinal qualities. A well in the parish of Dindor excites much emulation on each New-year's Day, in a contest for the first pail-full of water, which is termed *the cream of the well*, and is presented to some neighbour as a mark of respect, and a pledge of good fortune; a pecuniary compliment is expected in return. This custom appears harmless; but it would be difficult, perhaps, to point out any useful or laudable purpose resulting from it.'

Another custom is thus stated:

'*On Twelfth Eve* thirteen small fires are lighted on the growing wheat, and cakes and liquor distributed on the spot, amidst the loud invocations of the party, for the prosperity of the owner, and a plentiful produce of grain on his lands. This custom is well known under the name of *wassalling*, or wishing health, (from the Saxon language,) and is of great antiquity. It probably arose from the Roman feasts offered

offered to Ceres, the goddess of corn, whose favour was thus invoked. A kind of divination is also practised on these occasions: a cake is placed on the horn of a favourite ox; the health of the animal is then toasted, and if the cake is thrown in one direction, it becomes the property of the principal servant, or otherwise that of the lowest.'

Descending now to particulars, Mr. D. begins with the capital, and details its military and civil history. He supposes it, though placed on a different site, to have sprung from the ruins of *Magna Castra*, and not to have been built before the settlement of the Saxons. We read of a synod held at it in A. D. 680. Offa, we have seen, resided in a palace in its vicinity. Athelstan, who negotiated a treaty with the Britons in this city, is supposed to have begun its fortifications; which Harold is conjectured to have repaired and strengthened during the expedition which he made into these parts, in consequence of the ravages committed by Gryffyth Prince of Wales, and Algar Earl of Chester. It is also imagined that Harold built its castle.

In alluding to the commencement of the reign of Edward III. the author observes that the castle now began to be neglected; and in the time of Henry VIII. it fell into almost total decay: having formerly, according to Leland, been "one of the fayrest, largest, and strongest castels in England." By means of a MS. in the collection at Hom Lacy, Mr. Duncumb has been able to throw considerable light on the dastardly surrender of this place to Sir William Waller, at the beginning of the civil wars, which is left unexplained in the histories of the period; as well as on the state of the king's affairs in general in these parts. He also inserts interesting original details of the gallant defence which it made when besieged by the Scotch under the Earl of Leven. From the statement transmitted to their employers by the Commissioners of Parliament, who were sent in 1652 to take a survey of the possessions of the crown in this county, it appears that the remains of this once important edifice were then valued at only 8*l*. 'The keep, (adds Mr. D.) has since been levelled, and no part of the walls remain; but the site of those which enclosed the larger ward is now converted into a public walk, and as such is deservedly admired.'

Treating of the civil history of this city, the author observes that it was the scene of that trial, the record of which has been given to the public by Dr. Hickes as an instance of the Saxon mode of proceeding. This relique is of far less value than we might at first suppose: since it serves for little else than to establish the fact of such a constituted jurisdiction, and to shew the rude state of the times. The Bishop, the Earl, the Earl's son,

and another, constitute the tribunal; two persons appear as officers of the crown; and the sheriff, and three others, whose names are inserted in the record, and all the freemen of the county, are said to have been present. The plaintiff, the son, demanded a decree for transferring to him certain lands held by the defendant, his own mother; on which the court asked whether any person appeared for the defendant; and one of the officers of the crown, who was also her son-in-law, answered that he should stand forwards, if any ground for the present action should be stated. Three of her neighbours, then in court, were sent to the defendant, to inquire respecting her right to the estates in question; and they reported from her that she held no estates to which her son had any claim; and that in the presence of the messengers, she had disinherited her son the plaintiff, and had devised her property, both real and personal, to her daughter, the wife of her advocate. On this bare denial of her son's the plaintiff's right, by the defendant, at the prayer of her advocate, the court decreed in her favour, and ratified the devise: the whole was then enrolled.

The Bishops of Hereford, in addition to their spiritual functions, were invested with important temporal rights:

'In the jurisdiction which has prevailed in the city of Hereford, the bishops appear to have retained a more than common share of the civil authority; the extent and progress of which shall now be explained. Nearly half of the city, together with a considerable portion of the suburbs, form a district, entitled the Bishop's Fee; within this district the successive prelates have enjoyed very considerable privileges, and, on particular occasions, their authority has altogether superseded that of the civil magistrate, by extending over the whole city. As lords of this fee, they exercised the ancient rights denominated (from the Saxon) *infangenethef* and *utfangenethef*, by which they administered justice within their limits, and committed offenders to the custody of their own officers in their own peculiar prison, which was situated within the walls of the episcopal palace. By *Chol* and *Cheam*, or *Theame*, they restrained and judged bondmen and villeins, with their children, goods and chattels; and by *Sac* and *Soke* their tenants were excused from the payment of customary burdens and impositions. They also held an annual fair, for the sale of merchandize, within their fee; during its continuance their power extended to all parts of the city; the markets were transferred from the usual places to that appointed by the bishop, and a porter was sworn at each of the city gates, to collect the tolls for his use. A bailiff was annually elected by a jury, together with a serjeant at mace, leather-searchers, and aleconners. They regulated the assize of bread and beer; and courts baron, leet, and piepoudre were held; and presentments and other usual business formally transacted.'

All the charters, down to that of James inclusive, recognize these rights; and a subsequent one, that of William III. though it

it does not recite them, still does not revoke them, and therefore they are valid to this day. As, however, the exercise of many of them would be inconvenient, and of little benefit to the claimants, it has been long discontinued.

Very minute accounts of the corporate government of this city, certified by its bailiffs at the request of several Welsh corporate towns, are to be found in this volume; and they exhibit, in a very favourable light, our antient municipal administrations. They are translations, supposed by the author to have been made from original documents, or other authentic sources: but we should have been glad to have been furnished with satisfactory proofs, or even with reasonable presumptions, of their being genuine.

The author enumerates the religious foundations which antiently stood within the precincts of Hereford, and sketches biographical notices of those of its natives who rose to distinction. The founder of the noble family of Boyle came from its vicinity; the city itself gave birth to the famous Nell Gwyn; and a claim is substantiated in its behalf in the following passage, which has sometimes been questioned:

'*Widemarsh-street* extends from the market place, or High-Town, towards the north, and was bounded in that direction by Widemarsh-gate. In this street was born the celebrated *David Garrick*, the unrivalled Roscius of his age. His reputation and merits are generally known and acknowledged; but as other places have contended for the honour of giving him birth, the following extract is given from the register of the parish of All-Saints, in this city:

"*David son of Peter and Arabella Garrick was baptized 28th February*, 1716.—H. Lewis, *Minister.*"

'Mr. Garrick's father was a French refugee, and had a lieutenant's commission in a regiment of horse then stationed in Hereford. His quarters were at an inn called *The Angel*, and David Garrick was born there. His father was afterwards promoted to a troop in the same regiment.'

Davies, in his life of Garrick, properly stated this fact. See M. Rev. Vol. lxiii. p. 207.—This city also boasts of a man of science at the early period of the reign of Henry II. in the person of Roger de Heriford; and it produced in later years a writer who still ranks at the head of his class, in John Gwillim, the celebrated Herald, nat. 1565. ob. 1621. Among its bishops, in antient times, stand most distinguished Robert Lozing, a great scholar in his day, and the founder of the cathedral; Breton, author of a legal treatise still esteemed by lawyers; and Cantilupe the saint. In more modern days, Godwin, Hoadley, and its last deceased prelate, of whom we have the following notice:

'John

'John Butler, a native of the town of Hamburgh, was next appointed to this see. In his early days he acted as private tutor in the family of Mr. Child, the banker; he was then a popular preacher in London, and possessed of sound parts, indefatigable industry; a good figure, and agreeable manners. Being introduced to Mr. Bilson Legge, he assisted that gentleman in a political controversy with Lord Bute, and rendered him further service in calculations on public finance. It was probably through this connection that Dr. Hayter, Bishop of London, appointed Mr. Butler his first chaplain; he obtained also the living of Everley, in Wiltshire, about the same time. On the recommendation of Lord Onslow he was constituted one of the king's chaplains, and obtained a prebend in Winchester cathedral. Commencing a political writer, he espoused Lord North in all the measures of his administration, and particularly in that of the American war which he endeavoured to justify in several pamphlets. In reward of these services he was made Archeacon of Surrey, and procured, what is termed, a *Lambeth* degree of Doctor in Divinity from the Archbishop of Canterbury. His next promotion was the see of Oxford, which was given to him by the minister in the year 1777, on the advancement of Dr Lowth to the bishoprick of London; the living of Cuddesden was held by him at the same time, being annexed to the see; but this preferment was rendered locally unpleasant from the circumstance of his not having regularly graduated at either of the universities; he, however, retained it until the year 1788, when he was advanced to the bishoprick of Hereford, over which he presided until his death. He was twice married; his second wife was the eldest daughter of Sir Charles Vernon, of Farnham, in Surrey, knt. with whose family he became acquainted during the residence of Mr. Legge, at the Holt, near that town. He was charitable, without ostentation, his manners were extremely courteous, and his conversation agreeable to the last period of his life. He retained many of the political opinions which he had imbibed in early years; speaking of the Americans, he constantly stigmatized them as *rebels*, and treated their resistance to this country with much asperity. He published a small volume of sermons, a few years before his death, and was interred in his cathedral, A. D. 1802.'

We have met with persons who considered this reverend prelate as the author of Junius's letters.—The lovers of sacred architecture will be interested by the elaborate account which is here given of the venerable cathedral: but we can only transcribe the author's relation of the unhappy catastrophe which befel it within our own memory. The height of the tower, from the base to the battlements, was one hundred and thirty-eight feet; the spire rose ninety-two feet above the battlements, and the weathercock was ten feet higher; making in the whole an elevation of two hundred and forty feet.

'From the style of this tower it may perhaps be dated about the beginning of the reign of Edward III. On Easter Monday, A. D. 1786, this part of the cathedral gave way, and by its fall crushed a con-

a considerable part of the adjoining nave, as well as that immediately under it. An expenditure of nearly £20,000 (including £2000 for the purposes of a general repair of the tower and of the whole fabric) has since proved very inadequate to its restoration in a style equal to its former appearance; it has not only lost the tower, but part of the site which it occupied, thereby considerably diminishing the length of the nave; and the whole is plainly finished with stone from the quarries of Lugwardine and Capeller hill. Of the sum expended £5000 was voluntarily subscribed by the laity, £2000 by the bishop and members of the cathedral, and the remainder was charged on the estates belonging to the church. The architect, Mr. Wyatt, has perhaps never been under the necessity of completing so extensive an undertaking at so limited an expence.'

If this work arrogates no pre-eminence over other county histories, and if the author is not profound in all the subjects of which he treats, nor brings various learning to bear on the several parts of his narrative, still it must be owned that fairness characterizes his pages throughout; that he every where manifests a laudable desire to be full and accurate; and that his labours are those of an intelligent, sensible, and candid man. We shall be glad to see the undertaking completed, and be happy duly to pay our respects to the remainder of it, when it shall have made its appearance.

The form of this publication is suitable to the subject, and worthy of the patron; the paper is fine; and the typography is highly creditable to the Hereford Press. The text is illustrated by convenient maps, and neat engravings. Jo.

ART. II. *Tracts relative to Botany,* translated from different Languages. Illustrated by nine Copper Plates, and occasional Remarks. 8vo. pp. 280. 5s. Boards. Phillips and Fardon. 1805.

FEW students of botany, we believe, will hesitate to acknowlege themselves indebted to the present translator, for bringing within their reach several important and curious treatises; which were, in a great measure, locked up from the generality of readers. We shall briefly notice each article in the order of publication.

On the Organs of Perspiration of Plants. By J. Hedwig. Translated from the German.—The discovery of the perspirative ducts and pores of plants, which form the subject of this paper, is erroneously ascribed to Von Gleichen, whereas it is properly due to M. de Saussure.—Among the additions supplied by the translator, we have to notice the substance of M. Decandolle's curious observations on the cortical pores of leaves. These pores have not been observed on the stalks, except on such

such as in their texture approach to leaves. 'There are none to be seen upon the leaves of *Cuscuta Europæa*, which singular plant, when immersed in water, affords no gas, whether exposed to light or darkness.' Fungi, Lichens, Hepaticæ, and Fuci, are also destitute of cortical pores. These last, it should seem, are found only on those parts of vegetables which are exposed to light and air. None of the immersed parts of aquatic plants are furnished with the pores in question: 'but plants entirely destitute of pores, while living in water, regain them when growing out of it, and *vice versâ*.—The blanched plants are also without them.'—M. Decandolle supposes that these organs are subservient to the process of insensible perspiration.

Some Materials for the Illustration of the Botanical Geography of the South-western Parts of Europe. By Professor Link. From the German.—These hints are extremely judicious, and may prepare the way for a more intimate acquaintance with a much neglected subject. The learned Professor embraces rather a wider range of inquiry than his title imports: but his statements would require more developement and illustration. In the mean time, however, they may suffice to warrant several important conclusions. Thus, we may infer that swamps and stagnant waters produce the same plants under different latitudes; that many plants grow in all parts in great abundance; that the *Musci Frondosi* are far from being frequent in the south of Europe; that various plants are larger in all their parts in southern than in northern Europe; that many species, which are smooth in the north, are hairy in the south; and that many, which are perennial in northern, are annual in southern regions. It likewise appears that the Flora of Portugal has much less affinity than might have been expected with those of Spain and the south of France, and hardly any with that of the Levant; while, on the other hand, it has a marked relation to those of the north coast of Africa, and of the south-western districts of *England*.

The lists of localities, with which we are here presented, appear, in general, to correspond with fact: but we know not why *Clinopodium Vulgare*, a native of our own island, should be banished to the south of Europe; and we can scarcely believe that *Centaurea Cyanus* occurs only in a cultivated state in southern latitudes.

On the Nature and Mode of Production of Agallochum or Aloes-Wood. By J. de Loureiro. From the Portuguese.—According to this writer, the plant in question is the *Agallochon*, and more recently, the *Xylaloe* of the Greeks; *Agallochum*, *Tarum*, and *Lignum Aloes* of the Romans; and *Agalugin* of the Arabs. It is a native of that part of India which lies beyond the Ganges,

and

and is chiefly confined to the kingdoms of Cochin China, Laos, Siam, and Tonquin. From the ignorance of travellers and the avarice of druggists, the same appellation has been long bestowed on some sorts of sweet-scented wood of very inferior quality. The tree which furnishes the true aloes-wood is of considerable size, with ascending branches, and a smooth fibrous bark. From its botanical characters, M. de Loureiro classes it under *Decandria Monogynia*, and has named it *Aloexylum Verum*.

'The manner in which *Agallochum* is formed within its mother tree, is analogous to that by which scirrhous tumours, consequent gangrene, and mortification, are produced in animal bodies.'—

'As the Agallochum-trade is very lucrative in the East, the natives of those regions go every year in search of it, at the expence of much hazard and labour, among the mountains; for which purpose they keep together in bodies of ten, twenty, or more, with provisions for a month, and with arms for defence against the wild beasts; such as tigers, rhinoceroses, elephants, and snakes, which abound in those parts; and with implements requisite for cutting the wood. They traverse the distant parts of forests, and examine every aloexylum tree they find. Such as are very healthy and have green leaves they pass by; those, on the other hand, which are either already dead, or have their leaves of a pale yellow hue, (a symptom of approaching dissolution) they immediately fell, cut them open in a longitudinal direction with their hatchets, and discover the object of their pursuit.'

The traders distinguish three sorts of the true *Agallochum*; of which the first, called Calambá by Europeans, and Ki-nam by the natives, is the most valuable and rare. It is peculiar to the mountains which lie to the west of the province of Binh-Khang, in the latitude of 30°. north

On the Genera of Orchideæ, and their systematical Arrangement. By Prof. O. Swarz. From the Swedish.—This is a long and elaborate paper: but we cannot abridge its technical details. The author, who has had the opportunity of examining two hundred species of this singular family, very ably exposes the inaccuracies of former botanists, and assumes more precise definitions. In *extent* of observation, however, he is greatly surpassed by the authors of the *Flora Peruviana et Chilensis*; who regard the region of the Cordilleras as the native country of the *Orchideæ*, and assert that upwards of one thousand distinct species of them may there be found within a very small tract of country.

Some Botanical Observations, by Dr. M. B. Borkhausen. From the German.—In consequence of repeated and personal observation, Dr. B. is enabled to state that *Orobus tenuifoliis* is only a variety of *O. tuberosus*; that *Polygala amara* and *Monspeliaca* are specifically the same with *P. vulgaris*; that *Scabiosa ochroleuca* does not essentially differ from *S. Columbaria*; that

Viola

Violatricolor and *arvensis* are only varieties of the same species; that *Pimpinella dissecta* of Retzius and Roth is often identified with *P. saxifraga*; that *Hieracium murorum* includes *H. pilosissimum*; and *H. sylvaticum* the *maculatum* of Schrank.

Account of the Ule-Tree, (Castilla elastica,) and of other Trees producing the elastic Gum. By Don Vincente de Cervantes, *Prof. of Botany in Mexico.* From the Spanish.—After having indicated some exotic trees, which produce an elastic gum, this Spanish botanist gives the characters and description of the *Ule*, or, as he terms it, *Castilla*, in honour of the late indefatigable Don Juan del Castillo. His account is illustrated by a very distinct engraving of the plant.

Observations on the Genera Juglans, Fraxinus, and Quercus, in the Neighbourhood of Lancaster, in North America. By the Rev. H. E. Mühlenberg, *with the Remarks of Prof.* C. L. Wildenow. From the German.—Not fewer than fourteen species of oak are here particularized: but want of room prevents us from entering into minutiæ.

Observations on the Plant called Erica Dabœcia, shewing the Necessity of referring it to a different Genus and Order. By Prof. Jussieu. From the French.—The circumstance of four retroflected valves, in the structure of the capsule, induced M. de Jussieu to class the fluctuating genus in question, among the *Rhododendra*; while the inspection of its other characters, derived from the form and number of its several parts, also, limits it to *Menziesia*. Hence it is now designated *Menziesia polifolia*.

Botanical Observations. By Frederick Ehrhart. From the German.—This article consists of too many petty and detached remarks to allow of analysis.

It only remains for us to observe that the translator, in so far as we have been able to judge, has executed his part with fidelity and distinctness. Although his annotations are neither numerous nor extended, they are strictly applicable to the text, and manifest a laudable acquaintance with botanical science. **Muir.**

ART. III. *Memoirs of Marmontel, written by himself.*

[*Article concluded from page* 254.]

WE now arrive at a part of the work which is truly interesting,—a view of the society at the residence of Madame Geoffrin; from which we shall make several extracts. We begin, as we ought, with the lady of the house:

'Hers was a singular character, and difficult to seize and to paint, because it was all in demi tints and shades; and, though very decided, it had not one of those distinguishing traits by which disposition is

usually marked and defined. She had kindness, but very little sensibility; she was beneficent, but without one of the charms of benevolence; eager to aid the unfortunate, but without seeing them, for fear of being moved by them; a sure, faithful, even an officious friend, but timid, disturbed, whilst in the very act of serving her friends, with the fear of compromising either her credit or her repose. She was simple in her tastes, in her dress, in her furniture, but nice in her simplicity, having the delicacies of luxury in all their refinement, but nothing of their brilliancy nor of their vanity. Modest in her air, in her carriage, in her manners, but with a fund of pride, and even a little vain glory. Nothing flattered her more than her commerce with the great. At their houses, she saw them but rarely; there she was not at her ease; but she had the secret of attracting them to hers by a coquetry imperceptibly flattering; and in the easy, natural, half respectful and half-familiar air with which she received them, I thought I saw an extreme address. Always free with them, always on the verge of propriety, it was never overstepped. To be in favour with heaven, without being out of favour with her society, she used to indulge in a kind of clandestine devotion: she used to go to mass as one goes to an intrigue; she had an apartment in a convent of nuns, and a tribune in the church of the Capucins, but with as much mystery as the gallant women of that day had their private houses for intrigue. All kind of state disgusted her. Her greatest care was to make no noise. She was ardently desirous of celebrity, and of acquiring a great consideration in the world; but she would have it tranquil. A little like the lunatic who fancied himself made of glass, she avoided, as so many rocks, all that could expose her to the shock of human passions; and thence her timidity, her faint-heartedness, whenever a good office required courage. The man for whom, with a full heart, she would have freely opened her purse, was not equally sure of the support of her tongue, and on this point she flattered herself with ingenious excuses. For example, it was her maxim that, when we hear our friends abused in company, we should never undertake warmly their defence, nor contend with the defamer; for that was the sure way to irritate the viper, and refine its venom. She used to say that a man should praise his friends but very temperately, and for their qualities, not for their actions; for on hearing it said of some one that he is sincere and beneficent, each can say to himself, I too am beneficent and sincere. "But," said she, "if you cite of him a laudable act, an act of virtue, since each cannot say that he has done as much, he takes this praise for a reproach, and seeks to depress it." What she most esteemed in a friend, was an attentive prudence never to compromise her; and as an example, she used to cite Bernard, the man of all others most coldly precise in his actions and his words. "With him," used she to say, "one may be tranquil; no one complains of him; it is never necessary to defend him." This was a hint for heads a little lively like mine, for there were more than one such in her society; and if any one of those she loved, happened to be in danger or in trouble, whatever might be the cause, and whether he were right or wrong, her first impulse was to accuse him herself: on which

point

point perhaps too warmly, I one day took the liberty of telling her that her friends should be all infallible and always happy.'

Next comes D'Alembert:

'Of this society the gayest man, the most animated, the most amusing in his gaiety, was d'Alembert. After having passed his morning in algebraic calculations, and in solving the problems of merchanics or astronomy, he came from his study like a boy just loose from school, seeking only to enjoy himself; and by the lively and pleasant turn that his mind, so luminous, so solid, so profound, then assumed, he soon made us forget the philosopher and the man of science, to admire in him all the qualities that can delight and engage. The source of this natural gaiety was a pure mind, free from passion, contented with itself, and in the daily enjoyment of some new truth that recompensed and crowned his labours; a privilege which the mathematics exclusively possess, and which no other kind of study can completely obtain.'

Marivaux is thus delineated:

'Marivaux would have been very glad to have had this jovial humour too; but he had a business in his head that incessantly preoccupied him, and gave him a sullen air. As he had acquired by his works the reputation of a subtile and refined wit, he thought himself obliged to give perpetual proofs of this wit, and he was continually on the watch for ideas susceptible of opposition or analysis, in order to turn or wind them as his fancy dictated. He would agree that such a thing was true *as far as a certain point, or in a certain view*; but there was always some restriction, some distinction to make, which no one perceived but himself. This exertion of the attention was laborious to him, and often painful to others; but it sometimes gave birth to happy perceptions and brilliant flashes of genius. Yet it was easy to discover, by the inquietude of his looks, that he was in pain about the success he already had, or about that he was about to obtain. There never was, I believe, self love more delicate, more wayward, or more fearful; but as he carefully humoured that of others, we respected his; and we only pitied him that he could not resolve to be simple and natural.'

We remark great discrimination in the following character:

'Helvétius, preoccupied with his ambition of literary celebrity, came to us, his head heated with his morning's work. To write a book that should be distinguished in his age, his first care had been to seek for some new truth to publish, or some bold and new idea to produce and support. But as new and fruitful truths have been infinitely rare for the last two thousand years, he had taken for his thesis the paradox which he has developed in his work *De l'Esprit*. Whether it were that by force of contention he had persuaded himself of what he wished to persuade others, or whether he were still struggling against his own doubts, and sought to conquer them, we were amused at seeing him bring successively on the carpet the questions that occupied or the difficulties that embarrassed him; and after having af-

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forded him for some time the pleasure of hearing them discussed, we engaged him to suffer himself to be carried along with the current of our conversation. He then gave himself wholly to it, with infinite warmth, as simple, as natural, as ingeniously sincere in his familiar converse as you see him sytematic and sophistical in his writings. Nothing less resembles the simplicity of his character and of his habitual life, than the premeditated and factitious singularity of his works; and this want of harmony will always be found between the manners and opinions of those who fatigue themselves with imagining strange things. Helvétius had in his soul the complete contrary of what he has said. There never was a better man: liberal, generous, without ostentation, and beneficent because he was good, he conceived the idea of calumniating all honest men and himself, by giving to all moral actions no motive but self love. Abstracted from his writings, we loved him such as he really was, and you will soon see what a resource his house was for men of letters.'

Mademoiselle Lespinasse, the object of D'Alembert's adoration, must not be overlooked;

'I cannot mention the graces without speaking of one who had all their gifts both in mind and in language, and who was the only woman that Madame Geoffrin had admitted to her dinners of men of letters; it was the friend of d'Alembert, Mademoiselle Lespinasse: a wonderful composition of correctness, reason, prudence, with the liveliest fancy, the most ardent soul, the most inflammable imagination that has existed since the days of Sappho. That fire that circulated in her veins, and which gave to her mind such activity, brilliancy, and so many charms, has prematurely consumed her. I will tell you hereafter what regret her loss occasioned. Here I only mark the place she occupied at our dinners, where her presence excited inexpressible interest. The continued object of attention, whether she listened or whether she spoke herself (and no one spoke better) without coquetry, she inspired us with the innocent desire of pleasing her; without prudery, she made freedom feel how far it might venture, without disturbing modesty or wounding decorum.'

We should transcribe the greater part of this second volume, if we admitted every agreeable passage that occurs in it; yet we must find room for the extraordinary portrait of the Count de Creutz, (a Swede.)

'One of the men to whom I have been most dear, and whom I have most tenderly loved, has been the Count de Creutz. He too was of the literary society and dinners of Madame Geoffrin; less eager to please, less occupied with the care of attracting attention, often pensive, still oftener absent, but the most charming of the convivial circle, when without distraction he gave himself freely to us. It was to him that nature had really given sensibility, warmth, the delicacy of moral sentiment and of that of taste; the love of all that is beautiful, and the passion of genius as well as that of virtue: it was to him that she had granted the gift of expressing and painting in touches of fire, all that had struck his

imagination or vividly seized on his soul: never was a man born a poet, if this man were not so. Still young, his mind ornamented with a prodigious variety of information, speaking French like ourselves, and almost all the languages of Europe like his own, without reckoning the learned languages, versed in all kinds of ancient and modern literature, talking of chymistry as a chimist, of natural history as a pupil of Linneus, and singularly of Sweden and of Spain as a curious observer of the properties of climates and of their divers productions; he was for us a source of knowledge, embellished by the most brilliant elocution.'

Besides this literary assembly, Mad. Geoffrin had a dinner for artists, to which Marmontel was admitted; and he speaks with raptures of her *petits soupers*, where he was also a constant guest.

Other societies, of a more dangerous kind, occupied part of his time; and in one of them an adventure occurred which cost him his liberty, at least for a time. A parody on some passages of Corneille, in which the Duke D'Aumont was ridiculed, was composed in one of these parties of pleasure by Cury, and retained by the unlucky memory of our author. He repeated it in another party, and was the next day denounced to the Duke, and by him to the King, as the author of the satire. In consequence of this affair, notwithstanding his address in vindicating himself at an interview with the Duke de Choiseul, as he refused to give up the author of the satire, he was sent to the Bastille. This prison, so terrible to others, was made very comfortable to Marmontel; and he even began to translate Lucan during his confinement. On his release, which took place in eleven days, he lost his patent for the *Mercure:* this, however, he might have regained, if he would have disclosed the author of the parody: but the weakness or duplicity of his patroness, Mad. de Pompadour, finally deprived him of this benefit.

We cannot follow the author in his agreeable trip to Bourdeaux, nor in the tragi-comic history of poor Lefranc Pompignan, who was stung to death by the Parisian wits. In the course of this tour, Marmontel visited the canal of Languedoc, of which he speaks in terms of just admiration. We select a very striking account of the bason of St. Ferréol, the source of the canal, and the reservoir of its waters.

'This bason, formed as I have said by a circle of mountains, is two thousand, two hundred, and twenty-two fathoms in circumference, and one hundred and sixty in depth. The narrow pass of the mountains, that encompass it, is closed by a wall six and thirty fathoms thick. When it is full, its waters flow over in cascades; but in dry seasons these overflowings cease, and the water is then drawn from the bottom of the reservoir; the means employed for that purpose, are these:

'In the side of the mountain, two long vaults are constructed at the distance of forty feet from each other, which run under the reservoir. To one of these vaults, three brass tubes are vertically adapted, whose bore equals that of the largest cannon, and by which, when their cocks are opened, the water of the reservoir falls into an aqueduct constructed along the second vault; so that, when you penetrate to these tubes, you have one hundred and sixty feet of water above your head. We did not fail to advance thus far, by the glimmering light our conductor carried for us in a chafing-dish; for no ordinary light could have sustained the commotion of the air that the explosion of the waters soon excited under the vault; when, suddenly, with a strong iron lever, our man turned the cock of one of the three tubes, then that of the second, and then that of the third. At the opening of the first, the most dreadful thunder echoed beneath the vault: and twice, peal on peal, this roar redoubled. I thought I saw the bottom of the reservoir burst and the mountains around shake from their bases, and falling on our heads. The profound emotion, and, to speak the truth, the affright, this noise had created, did not prevent us from going to see what was passing under the second vault. We penetrated there, amid the sound of this subterraneous thunder; and we saw three torrents rush from the three tubes. I know of no motion in nature, that can be compared to the violence of the column of water, that here escaped from the reservoir in floods of foam. The eye could not follow it; it could not be looked on without giddiness. The border of the aqueduct, in which this torrent flowed, was but four feet wide; it was covered with freestone, polished, wet, and very slippery. There we were, standing, pale, motionless; and if our foot had slipped, the water of the torrent would have rolled us a thousand paces in the twinkling of an eye. We returned shuddering; and we felt the rocks, which support the bason, tremble at the distance of a hundred paces.'

Here we are again agreeably introduced to Voltaire, (whom the author visited at Ferney,) and here this illustrious writer speaks without disguise or ceremony. A very curious anecdote of Rousseau is related on this occasion, which it seems incumbent on us to notice, because it may guard some of our young readers against the seduction of his eloquent but dangerous writings:

'As we were talking of Geneva, he asked me what I thought of Rousseau. I answered that, in his writings, he appeared to me only an eloquent sophist; and, in his character, only a false cynick, who would burst with pride and indignation if the world ceased to look at him. As to the earnest desire he had conceived of giving a fair exterior to the part he acted, I knew the anecdote, and I told it to him.

'In one of the letters of Rousseau to M. de Malesherbes, you have seen in what a transport of inspiration and enthusiasm he had conceived the project of declaring himself against the arts and sciences. "I was going," says he, in the recital he has made of this miracle, "I was going to see Diderot then a prisoner at Vincennes; I had in my pocket

ket a *Mercure de France*, which I turned over as I went along. I fall on the question of the Dijon academy, which has given rise to my first work. If any thing ever resembled sudden inspiration, it is the emotion that this question excited in me. Suddenly, my mind is dazzled with a thousand lights; crowds of vivid ideas press on me at once, with a force and a confusion that threw me into inexpressible disorder. I feel my head seized with a giddiness that resembled intoxication. A violent palpitation oppresses me, and heaves my bosom. No longer able to breathe as I walk, I fall at the foot of one of the trees of the avenue, and I there pass half an hour in such an agitation that, on rising, I perceived all the front of my waistcoat wet with my tears, without having been sensible that I had shed any."

'You have here a transport eloquently described. I will now tell you the fact, in its simplicity, such as Diderot related it to me, and such as I related it to Voltaire.

"I was," 'tis Diderot who speaks, "I was a prisoner at Vincennes; Rousseau came to see me there. He had made me his Aristarchus, as he has said himself. One day, as we were walking together, he told me that the Dijon academy had just proposed an interesting question, and that he was desirous of treating it. This question was: *Has the re-establishment of arts and sciences contributed to the improvement of morals?* Which side will you take?" asked I. "The affirmative," answered he. "'Tis the asses' bridge," said I; "all ordinary talents will take that road; and you will find there only common ideas, whereas the contrary side presents a new, rich, and fertile field for philosophy and for eloquence."—"You are right," returned he, after a moment's reflection, "and I'll take your advice." Thus from that moment, added I, his part and his mask were decided.

"You do not astonish me," said Voltaire; "that man is factitious from head to foot: he is so in mind and in his soul. But it is in vain for him to play now the stoick and now the cynick; he will eternally belie himself, and his mask will stifle him."

It is truly strange that the magic of style should have imposed, as *philosophy*, on many well-meaning readers, the excentricities of this apostle of immorality.

The origin of the tale of Annette and Lubin is here given; and it serves to shew the peculiar facility and rapidity with which Marmontel executed this species of composition. In such occupations, and in different delicious societies, Marmontel disposed of his time, till new vacancies in the French academy excited his hopes of entering it. He was at length elected, after many difficulties, the recital of which he has contrived to render interesting; and in the course of his detail, we meet with some instances of the querulousness of authors which are truly ludicrous.

The history of Mad. Lespinasse, singular, romantic, and wrought up with all the charms of Marmontel's manner, ought to be extracted into our pages: but it has a fault with us, of which the reader would not be sensible; it is too long for our limits.

The loss of this extraordinary woman embittered and abridged the remainder of D'Alembert's life.

The close of this volume introduces us to the society at the house of Baron d'Holbach, and contains some interesting sketches of literary politics. As this assembly was considered as a focus of atheism, we shall quote Marmontel's relation, in part:

'We were no longer led and held by leading strings, as at Madame Geoffrin's. But this liberty was not licence, and there are revered and inviolable objects that were never submitted to the debate of opinions. God, virtue, the holy laws of natural morality, were there never subjected to doubt, at least in my presence; this I can attest. The career was still vast enough; and mind took such bold flights there, that I sometimes thought I heard the disciples of Pythagoras or of Plato. It was there that Galiani was so astonishing for the originality of his ideas, and for the adroit, singular, unforeseen turn, by which he effected their developement; it was there that the chemist Roux revealed to us, like a man of genius, the mysteries of nature; it was there that Baron d'Holbach, who had read every thing, and forgotten nothing interesting, poured out abundantly the riches of his memory; it was there above all, with his mild and persuasive eloquence, and his face sparkling with the fire of inspiration, that Diderot spread light into every mind, and his warmth into every heart. He that has only known Diderot by his writings has not known him. His systems on the art of writing disfigured his charming simplicity. When he was animated by conversation, and suffered the abundance of his ideas to flow from their source, he forgot his theories and suffered himself to be carrried on by the impulse of the moment; it was then that he was enchanting. In his writings he never knew how to form a whole; that first operation, that regulates and puts every thing in its place, was for him too slow and too painful. He wrote with fire, before he had meditated any thing: so that he has written beautiful pages, as he used to say himself, but he has never written a book. This defect of plan disappeared in the free and varied course of conversation.

'One of Diderot's beautiful moments, was when an author consulted him on his work. If the subject were worth the pains, you should have seen him seize it, penetrate it, and at one view discover of what riches, and of what beauties it was susceptible. If he perceived that the author had succeeded ill, instead of listening to the reading, his fancy supplied the defects of the work. If it were a play, he would imagine new scenes, new incidents, new traits of character; and thinking he had heard what he had meditated, he extolled to us the piece that had just been read to him, and in which, when it appeared, we found scarcely any thing of what he had cited of it. In general, and in all the branches of human knowledge, all was so familiar to him, and so present to his mind, that he always appeared prepared for whatever might be said to him; and his most sudden perceptions were like the results of recent study, or of long meditation.

'This

'This man, one of the most enlightened of the age, was likewise one of the most engaging; and particularly on what concerned moral goodness; when he spoke freely on it, I cannot express what charm the eloquence of sentiment had in him. His whole soul was in his eyes, and on his lips. Never did the face paint better the goodness of the heart.'

We here again meet with an instance of meanness and disingenuity in Rousseau,—qualities which Marmontel seems happy in bringing to light: but the story is too long for insertion.

On this occasion, Marmontel speaks of Rousseau's well-known quarrel with David Hume; and he asserts that, while Rousseau was accusing Hume of the most treacherous designs, Hume was endeavouring to efface the bad impressions which Rousseau had left of himself, at the Baron d'Holbach's parties. The concluding reflections of these passages well deserve the attention of our readers; and particularly of those who are beginning their literary career:

'What ravages had an excess of pride made in a soul naturally gentle and tender! With so much intellect, and such talents, what weakness, what littleness, what contemptible meanness in that restless, melancholy, irascible, and vindictive vanity, that was irritated at the bare idea of an attempt to wound it; that fancied enemies where nothing indicated them, and that never pardoned these imaginary crimes! What an important lesson to minds that incline to the vice of vanity! Without it, no one would have been more beloved nor more esteemed than Rousseau. It was the poison of his life: it rendered services odious to him, benefactors insupportable, gratitude importunate; made him injure and repulse friendship; and caused him to live wretched, and die almost abandoned.'

In recounting an interview with the celebrated M. D'Argenson in his retreat, we are presented with a striking picture of the miseries of ambition:

'As I was walking with him in his gardens, I perceived a marble statue at a distance; I asked him what it was. "It is that," said he, "which I have no longer the courage to look at." And as we turned away: "Ah! Marmontel! if you knew with what zeal I have served him! If you knew how often he assured me that we should pass our lives together, and that I had no better friend in the world than him! These are the promises of kings! This their friendship!" and in saying these words, the tears started in his eyes.

'In the evening, during supper, we remained alone in the drawing-room. This drawing-room was hung with pictures, that represented the battles in which the king had served in person with him. He shewed me where they were placed during the action; he repeated to me what the king had said to him; he had not forgotten a word. "Here," said he, in speaking of one of these battles, "I was two hours

hours in the firm persuasion that my son was dead. The king had the kindness to appear to sympathise in my affliction. How changed is he now! My sorrows no longer touch him." These ideas haunted him; and, if he were suffered to indulge them, he sunk buried, as it were, in his grief. His daughter-in-law, Madame de Voyer, would then hasten to seat herself by his side, press him in her arms, and caress him; while he, like a child, letting fall his head on the bosom or on the knees of her who consoled him, would bathe them with tears that he did not wish to hide.'

A dangerous illness, which affected Marmontel not long afterward, gave rise to his *Belisarius;* and he passed many sleepless nights in composing it. This work, which gained him great reputation, attracted the censures of the Sorbonne; and he seems to have almost invited theological hostility, that his enemies might be diverted from an attack on some political passages, which might have produced far more serious consequences.—The anathemas of the Sorbonne were opposed by the epigrams and squibs of Voltaire; the public laughed, and continued to read Belisarius.

On the occasion of the author's accompanying two ladies to a watering place, we are entertained with the history of Mad. de Séran's platonic connection with Louis XV., and with other amusing anecdotes.

At his return to Paris, Marmontel began to compose operas, first with an intention of assisting Gretry, the musician; and then from inclination. He was soon afterward more seriously employed, in his office of historiographer of France,—an appointment which was solicited for him by the Duke d'Aiguillon; and in the continuation of the Encyclopedia.

In the happy *early* days of the reign of Louis XVI., Marmontel acquired some slight degree of favour at court: but it was soon clouded by the part which he took in the affair of Gluck and Piccini. He was a warm Piccinist, and in course lost all prospect of notice from the Queen.

We now approach an important epoch of Marmontel's life; that of his marriage with Madlle. de Montigny. This story would have formed a very pretty tale, in the author's own manner; and indeed the recital is abundantly interesting without any addition to the facts —Shortly after this event, he became acquainted with Madame Necker. We transcribe the character of this lady, as we find it in the translation before us:

'A stranger to the manners of Paris, Madame Necker had none of the allurements of a young French woman. In her manners, in her language, it was neither the air, nor the tone, of a woman educated in the school of the arts, and formed in the school of the world. Without taste in her dress, without ease in her carriage, without

invitation

invitation in her politeness; her understanding, like her countenance, was too formal to have grace.

'But a charm more worthy of her was that of decorum, of candour, of kindness. A virtuous education, and solitary studies, had given her all that cultivation can add in the soul to an excellent disposition. Her heart was perfect; but in her head, opinion was often confused and vague. Meditation, instead of clearing her ideas, troubled them; by exaggerating, she thought she enlarged them; to extend them, she bewildered herself in abstractions, or in hyperboles. She seemed to see certain objects only through a mist that magnified them to her eyes; and then her expressions were so inflated that their emphasis would have been laughable, had you not known that she was ingenuous.

'Taste in her was less a feeling than a result of opinions, collected and transcribed into her poket-book. Had she never cited her examples, it would have been easy to say on what and after whom her judgment had formed itself. In the art of writing she only esteemed elevation, majesty, pomp. Gradations, shades, the varieties of colouring and of tone, touched her feebly. She had heard much in praise of the genuine simplicity of Lafontaine, of the *naturalness* of Sevigné; she would talk of them from hear-say, while she felt them but little. The graces of negligence, ease, the flow of soul, were unknown to her. Even in conversation, familiarity displeased her. I often amused myself with seeing how far she carried this delicacy. One day I cited to her some familiar expressions, which, I said, I thought might be received into the noblest style: as *faire l'amour; aller voir ses amours; commencer à voir clair; prenez votre parti; pour bien faire, il faudroit; non, vois-tu; faisons mieux, &c.* She rejected them as unworthy a dignified style. "Racine," said I to her, "has been less difficult than you. He has employed them all;" and I shewed her the examples. But her opinion, once established, was invariable; and the authority of Thomas, or that of Buffon, was for her an article of faith.

"You would have said that she reserved rectitude and accuracy for the rule of her duties. There, all was precise and severely measured; even the amusements in which she seemed desirous of indulging had their reason, their method.

'You would see her wholly occupied with making herself agreeable to her society, eager to welcome those she had admitted to it, attentive to say to each what could most please him; but all this was premeditated; nothing flowed naturally, nothing created illusion.

'It was not for us, it was not for herself that she exerted all her cares; it was for her husband. To make him acquainted with us, to win our favour for him, to have him spoken of with eulogy in the world, and to begin his renown, was the principal object of the foundation of her literary society. But it was requisite too that her drawing-room, and that her dinner should be a recreation, a spectacle for her husband; for indeed he was there only a cold and silent spectator. Except a few smart words that he introduced here and there, he sat mute and inanimate, leaving to his wife the care of supporting the conversation. She did all she could, but her mind had none of those

pretty

pretty graces that are the soul of the familiar dialogue of the table. Not a single sally, not one vivid touch, not one flash of gaiety that could awaken wit. Restless, troubled as soon as she saw the scene and the dialogue languish, she sought the cause of it in our eyes. Sometimes, even, she had the sincerity to complain of it to me. "How can it be otherwise, madame," used I to say to her, "wit is not always at our command, nor are we always in a humour to be engaging. M. Necker himself is, perhaps not every day amusing."

With his matrimonial connection, Marmontel adopted a stricter degree of morality; which, indeed, nothing is so likely to produce as the intimate society of an amiable woman:—he mentions this circumstance, on the subject of Rousseau's specious but profligate romance of Heloise, and illustrates it by some well founded and striking remarks. It is evident, however, that he felt a rooted dislike to Rousseau, whom he holds up to reproach on every occasion.

Marmontel succeeded D'Alembert as secretary to the French Academy, and preserved this place till the Revolution. The character of Thomas, who was early snatched from the literary world, is delineated with great force and eloquence, in speaking of his new associates in that body.

Towards the close of the third volume, the author interrupts the course of his narration, or rather abandons the events which relate immediately to himself, to give an abridged view of the French Revolution; and here, we confess, ends our relish for the work. Although Marmontel's sketch of the events is spirited and elegant, yet, as it possesses no claims no novelty, and is more cursory than other views of the same subject, we have not found it very interesting. It is indeed painful to revert to this topic, on which we have already *supped full with horrors*, and which has disappointed the hopes of the best friends of liberty and humanity.—Some passages, however, occur in this detail, which deserve particular attention: such is the dialogue between Marmontel and Chamfort; which shews the determination of Mirabeau and his party completely to subvert the established order of things. The passage is too long for our quotation, but we recommend it to every reader. The events which followed prove this melancholy truth, that in times in which the popular mind is agitated, the maddest views become most successful, and wisdom confers neither credit nor safety.

We here terminate our review of this very amusing and instructive book; which to the merit of truth adds all the graces and attractions of a work of fancy. To adapt it for general reading, indeed, some passages ought to be omitted:

Decipit

Decipit exemplar vitiis imitabile :

but the philosopher, as well as the man of the world, may draw the most important lessons from its perusal.

Marmontel died at his little cottage at Abbeville, on the 31st December 1799, of an apoplectic fit.

Fer.

ART. IV. *An Excursion to the Highlands of Scotland, and the English Lakes,* with Recollections, Descriptions, and References to Historical Facts. 8vo. pp. 300. 9s. Boards. Mawman. 1805.

ACCORDING to this tourist and his travelling companion, (W. Salte, Esq.) 'one of the best legacies which man can bequeath to posterity, is a book enlivened with innocent merriment, or stored with information of solid and extensive utility.' Under this description we cannot exactly class the present volume, notwithstanding its recollections, descriptions, and references: but we must allow, that it possesses the merits of fine paper and typography; and that it is illustrated and embellished by a distinct outline of the route, and by views of Inverary, Loch-Lomond, and Patterdale. We may add, that the itinerary is sufficiently comprehensive, as it includes Huntingdon, Stamford, Doncaster, York, Harrowgate, Durham, Sunderland, Newcastle, Alnwick, Berwick, Dunbar, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Inverary, Loch-Lomond, Hamilton, Lanark, Carlisle, the lakes of Cumberland and Westmorland, Kendal, Lancaster, Liverpool, Chester, Nantwich, Birmingham, Warwick, Woburn, St. Alban's, &c. The author, who, we learn from the dedication, is Mr. Mawman, the publisher of the work, manifests a disposition to enjoy emancipation from the bustle and confinement of the capital, and is usually pleased; except when the deficient *chaussure* of the Scottish females, or a disregard to cleanliness, extorts from his pen the language of pity or of censure. His style is rather too much interlarded with epithets, and occasionally borders on inflation. His sentiments, though rarely profound, or peculiarly ingenious, are consonant to our notions of a liberal and well-trained mind. Yet we perceive few approaches to genuine wit and sprightliness, or to information which can aspire to the character of 'solid and extensive utility.' Mr. Mawman's pretensions, indeed, are much more limited; for he avows, in the dedication, that the principal object of the publication is attained by expressing his value for Mr. Salte's friendship, and the respect which he feels for his character. The reader is likewise admonished that, if he tires of the book, he may let it alone: but, if he has already paid for it, this is no saving consolation.

It

It happens unfortunately for the attractiveness of this performance, that the same ground has of late been repeatedly described, and that the same remarks have been frequently presented to the public with more or less felicity of manner. Although, however, we cannot afford to retrace such a beaten track, we are glad to point to a few passages which deserve to be noticed on the score of novelty, or of interest. Such is the anecdote relative to the late Marquis of Exeter: the principal circumstances of which we have long known to be true, but which have not been generally made public:

'There are some circumstances in the life of the late noble possessour of Burleigh, which deserve commemoration. In his youth, while Mr. Cecil (his uncle being then Earl of Exeter) he married a lady of very large fortune. In a few years, having suffered two of the deepest wounds which the severity of fortune can inflict, the loss of his property by gaming, and of his wife by divorce, he determined to abandon the fashionable world, and retired under the name of Jones to a village in Shropshire. There he at first occupied a lodging, but soon built a small cottage; and continued for some years in such profound obscurity, that hardly a trace of him could be discovered by his friends: while the inhabitants of the village formed the wildest conjectures concerning the solitary stranger. His agreeable manners, however, soon rendered him an acceptable neighbour. One evening, at the table of the rector of the parish, he displayed so much knowledge of the world and such a degree of classical information, that his host told him, his education and manners were too conspicuously superior to those of the character which he assumed (viz. that of a servant who had gained a small independence in the family of a nobleman,) not to excite considerable doubts, both of the name which he bore and the account which he gave of himself. This remark induced Mr. Cecil, after the strictest injunction of secrecy, to disclose his real history.

'Amongst the farmers, whom he occasionally visited, was one of the name of Hoggins. This person had a daughter about eighteen years of age, so beautiful and amiable, that Mr. Cecil made her an offer of his hand. She referred him to her father, who, on account of the mystery involving his character, objected to the match. To this he replied, that the offer was much more advantageous than either the father or the daughter could reasonably expect. The farmer then consulted the clergyman, who told him he was not at liberty to give him the desired information: but he probably expressed himself upon the occasion, so as to convince the inquirer, that he ought not to withhold his consent; for the marriage was soon after solemnized (in the year 1791) and Mr. and Mrs. Jones retired to their cottage.

'Lord Exeter being at the point of death, the steward was dispatched in search of the heir, whom he found at Bolas with a wife and two children. Mr. Cecil, having contrived still to remain unknown, proposed to his lady a journey to Stamford in the stage-coach. Before their arrival, the uncle was no more. To Burleigh they were conveyed in a chaise; and, as they proceeded through the park, Mr. Cecil

Cecil (now Earl of Exeter) repeatedly asked his fair companion, how she liked the grounds and the situation of the mansion: he then proposed, that they should "see the house;" and, while the cottager was gazing with astonishment at the novel scene of so much magnificence, told her that these objects of her admiration, together with many which he would afterwards shew her, were her own, and that she was the Countess of Exeter. The sudden communication of this unexpected grandeur was too powerful for her to sustain, and she was carried motionless into her apartment.

'The remark, however, that great and sudden elevations seldom contribute much to happiness, was here fully exemplified. Admired for her beauty and early attainment of elegant manners, beloved for her humility and amiable conduct, amidst those scenes of splendour Lady Exeter appeared unhappy. Her perpetual solicitude to acquire those accomplishments, which she thought requisite for her new station, probably preyed upon her spirits and accelerated her death. She died in the bloom of life (at the age of 24) in January, 1797, leaving two sons and a daughter, the present Marquis, Lord Thomas, and Lady Sophia Cecil.'

The mountainous district, which is indented by the Gare-Loch *, is thus depicted:

'In this wild romantic scenery, the eye wanders in vain to discover a solitary cottage, or even a spot of cultivated earth; and till our arrival at the inn of Arroquhar, nothing was to be seen but a few mean huts, here and there a half-naked human being, and at intervals a boat on the lake with a fisherman and his boy.

'A drizzling rain gave a thick darkness to the natural dinginess of the lake, the effect of which was still farther augmented by the sea-weed that clung to the shores and rocks, and rode on the surface of the mournfully dashing waves; and by the lowering clouds which enveloped in obscurity the tops of the hills, and threw a sublime and awful majesty over this dreary region. The sides of the lake stretched along without the intervention of trees, or the relief of any vegetation upon its banks; and a solitary boat slowly moving across appeared to us almost as passing

"the melancholy flood,
With that grim ferryman which poets write of,
Into the kingdom of perpetual night."

'Near the head of the lake, through a scene made up of mountain, water, and sky, a yawning chasm opens into Glen-croe, guarded on each side by two black and rugged hills. Had Virgil seen this horrid gap, he could not have given a more appropriate description of

* Improperly called *Loch-Gare* in the text. This last-mentioned is an inlet of Loch Fyne. We also observe *Spira* for *Shira*, and *Torbet* for *Tarbet*. In most instances, however, Mr. M.'s topographical nomenclature is sufficiently correct.

it, than in the words which describe the entrance into the realms of Pluto:

> " Spelunca alta fuit, vastoque immanis hiatu,
> Scrupea, tuta lacu nigro."

'It is hardly possible to cast more gloom upon these dreary scenes; it can only be heightened by a vivid imagination painting the horrours of winter, and adding the fictitious description of this country by Procopius, as translated by Mr. Gibbon.'

The writer's notices of the character of the Highlanders, and his commiseration of their hardships, are alike creditable to the qualities of his head and of his heart;—though not original, they are founded in fact, and should be frequently recalled to every lover of his country. We shall only venture to hint that the engrossing of farms will probably be found, on mature examination, to be the necessary and *beneficial* consequence of increasing population in the low country, and of the general prosperity of our island. As our northern mountains are certainly unfit for the purposes of tillage, the community can have no reason for murmuring at their gradual conversion into sheep-walks and grazing districts. A greater extent of productive soil may thus be allotted to the culture of grain; while the possessors of highland estates are enabled to improve their circumstances, and a hardy but lazy and indigent set of men are removed to scenes of activity and comfort.

The ascent of Honistar, near Borrowdale, is detailed with considerable effect: but we must content ourselves with selecting a single circumstance:

'Here our guide pointed out to us tracks down the declivity opposite to Honistar, which are made by a man bringing slate from the top of the mountain into the vale below. This hardy and industrious creature, having attained the summit of a mountain hundreds of feet high, fastens together a large quantity of the slate; and placing it behind him, to preserve it from being shattered to pieces by an unprotected descent, slides down the precipice with his burthen pressing him forward; and thus, like Sisyphus, incurs the daily risk of being crushed to death, with the additional horror of a yawning abyss before his eyes.'

The commencing and the concluding paragraphs of this volume are rather too much *elevated:* but the whole may agreeably beguile a few vacant hours.

Muir.

ART. V. *Dissertations, Essays, and Sermons,* by the late Reverend and learned George Bingham, B. D., Rector of Pimpern and Critchill, Dorset; and many Years Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford. To which are prefixed Memoirs of his Life, &c. By his Son Peregrine Bingham, LL.B., late Fellow of New College, Oxford; Rector of Radclive, Bucks, and late Chaplain to His Majesty's Ship Agincourt. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1804.

A Sequel to, or a Continuation of the Memoirs prefixed to the Works of the late Rev. and learned George Bingham, B.D., or a Defence of the Conduct of his Successor, the present Incumbent of Long-Critchill with More-Critchill annexed, against the unfounded Insinuations conveyed to the Public, through the Channel of these Memoirs. Addressed to the Clergy of the County of Dorset by the Successor. 8vo. pp. 26. delivered Gratis.

SOME allowance may be made for the warmth of filial piety, when a son undertakes to be his father's biographer; and criticism itself, if it cannot fully subscribe to every encomium, must applaud the honourable feelings by which it was dictated. Mr. Peregrine Bingham, in exhibiting the life of his venerable parent, dwells with heart-felt satisfaction on his consummate piety and exemplary christian virtues; on the steadiness of his friendship and the warmth of his benevolence; on his patience and industry as a scholar; on the depth of his researches and the soundness of his arguments; and though the portrait seems to be highly flattering, he assures us that it is not too highly coloured, and that 'such and not less than such' was the author of the tracts before us. His father, indeed, appears to have been a good man, a respectable clergyman, and a profound biblical scholar: but while we applaud his diligence and zeal, we cannot, with his son, uniformly compliment him on the felicity of his strictures, nor on the soundness of his reasoning. On the contrary, we have found reason to differ from him in several respects. Before, however, we undertake to appreciate his merit as a writer, our business will be to notice the few incidents of his life.

The memoir informs us that George Bingham, the sixth son of Richard Bingham, Esq. and Philadelphia, daughter and heiress of John Potinger, Esq. by Philadelphia, daughter of Sir John Ernle, Knight, Chancellor, was born Nov. 7, 1715, at Melcomb Bingham, in the county of Dorset, the residence of that family for many centuries. Patronized by his grandfather Mr. Potinger, who was himself a man of learning, he was sent at twelve years of age to Westminster school; and before he was seventeen, he was elected from that foundation to Trinity College, Cambridge, but entered a Commoner at Christ

Church, Oxford. Esteemed for his learning and urbanity, within four years from his matriculation, he was made a Fellow of All Souls College; in the select society of which, Mr. Bingham formed some valuable friendships. On the death of the Rev. Christopher Pitt, (the translator of Virgil's Æneid, &c.) Mr. B. was presented by the late Lord Rivers to the rectory of Pimpern, Dorset; when he resigned his fellowship, and married a lady to whom he had been some time engaged. By this wife, on whom he doated with the tenderest affection, he had one daughter and two sons: but soon after the birth of the last, she was seized with a complaint which precipitated her to the tomb. In his widowed state, he endeavoured to alleviate his affliction by dividing his time between his theological studies and the education of his children; and a new instance of preferment occurring, viz. the rectory of More-Critchill, he availed himself of the opportunity of trying the effect of a change of residence: but, finding his new-chosen habitation unhealthy, he soon returned to the parsonage at Pimpern. In addition to the affliction which he sustained in the death of his wife, his heart was deeply wounded by the loss of his eldest son, John; who, at the age of 17, was drowned as he was bathing in the river Itchin, in a place called *the Pot*, having been suddenly seized with the cramp. As an author, Mr. B. was known by *a Dissertation on the Millenium* published in 1772, and by a Vindication of the Liturgy occasioned by Mr. Lindsay's Apology, published in 1774. The latter years of Mr. Bingham's life were occupied between his study and his farm; and in his 85th year, as his son tells us, '*finding the infirmities of old age increase*,' he died on the 11th of October 1800.

Mr. P. Bingham, having performed that duty which he owed to the memory of his deceased father, adverts in the remainder of the introduction to an extraneous circumstance relative to the rectory of More-Critchill, and reflects on the conduct of its present possessor. With this business he should not have encumbered his narrative; at least he ought to have maturely examined it before he had ventured on his mode of relating it.

Mr. Marsh, the present rector of Long-Critchill with More-Critchill annexed, resenting the heavy insinuation directed against him in Mr. Bingham's statement, has published a small pamphlet, 'a Sequel to the above-mentioned Memoirs of the Rev. George Bingham,' &c. in which he has fully explained the particulars relative to his appointment to and occupation of the Rectory in behalf of a minor; and he has completely, we think, exculpated himself from all blame, by adducing the letter of the Bishop of Bristol to prove that he now holds the living, not from any omission on his part in tendering his resignation

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of it according to his agreement with Mrs.Sturt, but because the Bishop has refused, *for certain reasons*, to accept of the resignation. As the history of this transaction would not be very interesting to our readers, we notice it in the most cursory manner: though justice to Mr. Marsh, who makes a triumphant defence against a cruel attack, would not allow us to pass it in total silence.

We proceed to the Tracts and Essays of Mr. Bingham, the first of which includes a series of Dissertations on the Revelation, intitled *Dissertationes Apocalypticæ*, and which occupy the remainder of the first Volume. On this subject, Mr. B. has bestowed much labour and study; and they who are fond of exercising their genius, in daring attempts to solve whatever is peculiarly mysterious and intricate, will have some pleasure in these inquiries: but we must honestly confess that the author has employed a mass of learning without establishing one positive fact, or in any instance clearing our apocalyptic sight. To us, the hieroglyphics of St. John still remain as inexplicable as those on Egyptian obelisks. Mr. B. perhaps, with some reason, objects to those interpretations which reflect on the Church of Rome, as the Antichrist and the Great Whore of the Revelation; since 'he cannot help acknowleging her to be a part, though a corrupted part of the Christian Church.' He is inclined to refer the prophecies in relation to Antichrist to the impostor Mahomet; and his opinion, on this point, was made known to the public in a dissertation which he published in 1772 on the Millenium, entitled τα Χιλια Ετη, and of which we gave an account in M. R. Vol. xlvii. p. 329. This tract is incorporated with the present volumes, but it makes only a small part of them. Mr. B. examines the genuineness of the Apocalypse, including its testimonies, style, and doctrines. If the great work of Lardner had been in his possession, he would probably have more fully discussed the first point; he persuades himself, however, that the genuineness of the Apocalypse might be ascertained by comparing its style with that of St. John's Gospel. He exultingly adduces a few instances in which similar, or nearly similar, expressions occur in both places: but the agreement is so trifling, when compared with the dissonance, that, in our opinion, it proves the reverse of what Mr. B, intends. Let us see how the matter stands. Does St. John, in any of the writings universally acknowleged to be his, use the expressions "A and Ω; who was and is and who is to come?" Does he speak of "*seven spirits of God?*" Does he ever use καρπος for *fruit* *, or σωματα for *men?* It is curious, however,

* St. John's word is καρπον. See Gospel, chap. xv.

to remark that, in the apocryphal book of Tobit, Raphael speaks of himself as one of the seven angels of God, εις των επτα αγιων αγγελων *; and we have the word σωματα employed to signify *slaves*, exactly in the sense in which the term is used in Rev. xviii. 13. It is also worthy of observation that not only are *seven spirits* no where represented, excepting in the Apocalypse, as standing round the throne of God, but these *seven spirits* are inserted in a solemn benediction, before Jesus Christ; though afterward our Saviour, in the character of the Lamb, is said to have seven eyes, "which are those seven spirits." Indeed, the most careless reader must be struck with the peculiar phraseology as well as imagery of this wonderful book; which must have been written by a person who had a superstitious reverence for the number 7, whose mind was impressed with all the pageantry of the Jewish ritual, and whose personifications and representations are of a kind unparalleled in any other part of the N. T. We have "Death sitting on a pale horse, and Hell (a person also) following;"—"Angels standing on the four corners of the earth, and holding the winds that they blow not" (*Ipsum compedibus qui vinxerit Ennosigæum*);—"A dragon, drawing with his tail the third part of Heaven;"—"Michael and the dragon fighting, and making war in heaven;"—"A woman standing in the Sun and calling to the fowls of the air," as if the atmosphere extended from the surface of the earth to the sun;—Incense is said to come up with the prayers of the saints;—and Hell is painted as smoking like a large caldron, with fire and brimstone. The whole apparatus is formed on the Jewish plan: in Heaven we see a golden altar with four horns standing before God; the New Jerusalem descends for the twelve tribes of Israel, which are distinctly named; and there is a *crystalline sea*, said to correspond with the molten sea of Solomon.

Supposing, however, this singular book to be a genuine work of St. John, written in the isle of Patmos towards the conclusion of the reign of Domitian, what is its purport, and what events does it prefigure? So much of it as respects the seven churches of the Lesser Asia is easily to be understood: but the subsequent chapters are mysterious; and, as it is confessed by Mr. B., 'in many places unintelligible.' We consider, with this author, the Apocalyptic visions to be in series, and represented as occurring at the same time: but what idea is designed to be conveyed by a scrole composed of separate leaves, and each leaf sealed with a distinct seal; what is the purport of the hieroglyphical delineations on these leaves; what

* Tobit xii. 15.

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is meant by the επτα σαλπιγγες; by the Βιβλαριον which St. John is ordered to eat, and which was sweet in his mouth and in his belly was bitter; what by επτα φιαλαι, by βαβυλων, and by Ιερουσαλημ καινη;—who are to be understood by Gog and Magog, by οι δυο μαρτυρες, by the Γυνη περιβεβλημενη τον ηλιον, by Θηριον, whose number is 666, by a star which is called *Wormwood*, and by a city which measures 12,000 furlongs, and is as *high* as it is long and broad;—what was meant, we say, by these expressions, it now seems impossible to ascertain with the least degree of certainty, or even of probability. The contents of this book are very striking, and calculated to excite curiosity: but every attempt to gratify it has proved, and we think, without an express revelation, must continue to prove, abortive.

Mr. Bingham is justified by the whole tenor of the visions, in considering the East to be more particularly the Apocalyptic scene of action; though he cannot be allowed to have any solid ground for supposing Mahomet, any more than the Pope, to be designated by the title of Antichrist. His hypothesis of *days* signifying *years* is a mere assumption. When in Rev. xi. 9. it is said that dead bodies were kept unburied three days and a half, we cannot understand three years and a half. Besides, if *days*, in this book, uniformly denote *years*, the 1000 years in which Satan, the old Serpent, is to be bound, must mean 365×1000=365,000 years. The events, previously to these thousand years, are promised to occur at a period at no great distance from the prophecy. In the beginning, the writer tells the churches α δει γενεσθαι εν ταχει; towards the end, ο γαρ καιρος εγγυς; and even at the very conclusion, our Saviour says ναι ερχομαι ταχυ. With these intimations, it is most rational to refer the *man of sin* and the *last days* to the period of the destruction of the Jewish polity; and the promise of a New Jerusalem might be designed to comfort the Jews with the hope that a more glorious Jerusalem would arise out of the ruins, eclipse the former in splendor, and be the seat of a most opulent empire.

It is no more than *gratis dictum* when we are told that ιππος λευκος is 'Trajan;' ιππος πυρρος 'Adrian;' ιππος μελας 'Antoninus Pius;' Θυσιαστηριον 'the persecutions preceding the reign of Dioclesian;' and Σεισμος 'the destruction of the empire of Idolatry;'—that the Χαλαζα, ορος καιομενον and αστηρ called αψινθος, (the results of the sounding of the first three trumpets) are 'the irruptions of the Goths;' and that the σκοτος which followed the sounding of the fourth, by which "one-third of the sun and of the moon and of the stars was smitten," means 'the subsequent obscurity and defection of the church in morals, discipline, and worship.' Mr. B. may adduce these instances to

prove that, in the Apocalypse, 'great and important truths are concealed under striking and apposite representations:' but we want discernment to discover the appositeness of these hieroglyphical pictures to the objects said to be represented by them. We cannot be of the opinion of those who think that St. Peter alluded to the Revelation by his "*more sure* word of prophecy."

That we may give our readers a specimen of Mr. B.'s mode of commenting on this confessedly obscure book, we shall extract his illustration of the 2d part of the Βιβλαριον, or Little Book, containing a description of what is termed a great wonder in heaven, viz. "a woman clothed with the sun," &c. (chap. xii. 1.)

'We have here a representation of Christianity by her proper symbols, from her first appearance, throughout her present militant state. Her struggles prior to her obtaining a settlement are represented by her labour-pains, and her more settled state by her bringing forth a man child: and the attempts of the Devil, under each period, to prevent the increase of Christianity, by the Dragon watching her in her labour, and ready to destroy the child, as soon as she should be delivered. But in the end his attempt was frustrated; for the woman was secured by flight, and her child was taken up to the throne of God: or in other words, the church continued, though in a state of distress and persecution, and its members were safe under the divine protection. We find these images before introduced in the prophesy of Isaiah; but with this difference, *then* the sudden increase of Christianity is prefigured by an easy birth. "Before she travailed, she brought forth, before her pain came she was delivered of a man child." Isaiah, lxvi. 7, 8. And again, "As soon as Zion travailed, she brought forth her children:" but here, ere she brought forth her man child, she cried, travailing in birth, and pained to be delivered: which expressed those oppositions and difficulties, which the church endured under her ten persecutions. She is described as clothed with the sun, having the moon under her feet, and upon her head a crown of twelve stars. The twelve stars so visibly allude to the doctrine of the twelve apostles, with which the church is irradiated, that it is reasonable to interpret the sun as meaning the sun of righteousness, the head of the church, Jesus Christ, her author and founder. But concerning the moon we are not so well agreed, whether we should understand this of the Jewish ceremonies, or, it may be, of all varying sublunary things, with Mede; or with Daubuz, of the Holy Ghost. Yet it may perhaps be worth our observation to remember, that this woman, thus glorious in her apparel, is stationed in heaven; and the moon in respect of her situation is placed under her feet, as in the Apotheosis of Virgil's Eclogue:

"Sub pedibusque videt nubes et sidera Daphnis."

And all this emblematically represents her conspicuous exalted state, and shews her to be, what our Saviour called his disciples in one place (Matt. v. 14.) and terms himself in another, (John viii. 12.) το φως του κοσμου: and as the greater light rules the day, and the lesser governs

governs the night, (Gen. i. 16. Ps. cxxxvi. 9) we are to understand that no part of the earth at any season is to be entirely deprived of her light.'

What could induce any person to interpret the moon to signify the Holy Spirit, we are at a loss to conjecture.

Mr. B. undertakes to shew that by *Babylon* is meant, not Rome, but Constantinople; (which as well as Rome is erected on seven hills;) and that the *Man of Sin* does not signify an individual, but the Jews at the destruction of Jerusalem, whose conduct answered the two characters by which the Man of Sin was to be discriminated. We shall not, however, discuss the soundness of this conjecture, but shall dismiss Mr. B.'s *Dissertationes Apocalypticæ* with lamenting that he should have laboured to so little purpose. We trust that future commentators, before they put on their Apocalyptic spectacles, will consider the impenetrable darkness in which this book has been always enveloped; and will resolve to blot no more paper with Dissertations, until some *data* be obtained, and some *solid principles* of interpretation are established.

The first tract in the second volume is Mr. Bingham's Vindication of the doctrine and liturgy of the Church of England, in answer to Mr. Lindsay's Apology, published in 1774, and our opinion of which was given in M. R. Vol. li. p. 296.

Παυλος εν Αθηναις, or *Paul at Athens*, is the subject of the next Essay, which was written during the author's confinement at Bath, 1782, under a severe paralytic stroke. Here Mr. B. explains the character of the Athenians, and the Apostle's admirable address in defending himself before the Areopagus; neither of which appears in our version of Acts xvii:

'To say that "all the Athenians, and strangers which were there, spent their time in nothing else but either to tell or to hear some new thing," is to make them arrant gossips, a weak idle useless people. And to begin telling his judges, they were "too superstitious," does not seem reconcilable to that address, which runs through his whole Apology.

'Were any historian to say that in the reign of Charles the Second a society was incorporated which occasionally holds its meetings even to this day; and when they get together they do nothing else but spend their time in telling or hearing some new thing; it would impress on the reader's mind a very humiliating idea of the Royal Society. But were it said, that some of the first and most learned men of the kingdom, who seeing the utility of experimental philosophy, first privately among themselves, and afterwards more publicly proceeded in making several useful discoveries, after the Restoration obtained the king's charter of incorporation, and to this day support the character of the Royal Society; it would be an imperfect, but much more candid, representation of that respectable body of learned

men. Yet, if you cast your eye over their Transactions, and observe that they admit foreigners amongst them, you will be apt to say Παντες, και οι επιδημουντες ξενοι, εις ουδεν ετερον ευκαιρουν η λεγειν τι και ακουειν καινοτερον. I take there to be something similar in the case before us. Athens was the place whither the youth resorted for education; and the philosophers for the instruction of others. It was the seat of science; and philosophy in all its branches was cultivated and improved. Well therefore might it be said that not only the citizens of Athens, but οι επιδημουντες ξενοι, they who resorted thither, employed a principal part of their time (or, as Scapula renders it, "in nullâ re aliâ otium suum consumebant") in hearing and reporting things worthy of their attention.'

Though Paul's spirit was moved at seeing this city, so celebrated for science and learning, given up to idolatry, we think with Mr. B. that he was too expert an orator to begin his speech by bluntly telling them that they were "too superstitious:" the phrase δεισιδαιμονεστερος was not used by him in an ill sense, but was chosen as an apparent compliment to the Athenians for their religious reverence of the gods; while the proof which he adduces of this reverence affords him an opportunity of attacking idolatry, by revealing to them the knowlege of the only true God and of his Son Jesus Christ. In this view, there cannot be a more excellent piece of oratory. The quotations which the Apostle introduces were also well-timed; since they convinced his audience, while he preached Jesus and the Resurrection, that he was not ignorant of Grecian literature.

The observation made on the Apostle, that he seemed to be "a setter-forth of strange gods, because he preached Jesus and the Resurrection," has induced some to believe that the Athenians took Αναστασις for the name of a God: but they must have given little attention to his doctrine, if they fell into this error. Though they employed the plural καινων δαιμονιων, they might only mean to accuse him of adding *one* to the number; and the mocking of some, when they heard of "the resurrection of the dead," does not countenance the supposition that the Apostle's Αναστασις was mistaken for a Deity. Idle rumour, however, might have occasioned such a misapprehension.

In the Essay on *the Song of Solomon*, Mr. B. espouses the notion that it is a mystical, allegorical pastoral. From the occurrence of similar amatory expressions in the Ἑλενης Επιθαλαμιος, he supposes that the Grecian poets borrowed from it; not considering that Love, being the same in all nations, must inspire an uniformity of sentiment. We admit with Mr. B. that the whole is properly שיר ידידת (erroneously printed ודידת שיד) *a song of Loves;* and that we may say throughout the poem, as in the Cestus of Venus, Il. Ξ.

Ειδ'

Ενθ' ενι μεν φιλοτης, εν δ' ιμερος, εν δ' οαριζυς:

but, after such a representation, we are not prepared for Mr. B.'s comments and spiritual applications. He, with others, considers this poem as divided into seven distincts parts, and thinks that it was composed in honour of Solomon's marriage with Pharaoh's daughter. The first of these opinions is very lamely supported; and the latter, in our judgment, is fully proved to be erroneous by Mr. Good, in his late publication on the Song of Solomon *.

The remainder of these volumes consists of four Sermons. In the first, on the wisdom of God displayed in the series of divine dispensations, the preacher informs us that 'Christ did not go and preach to the spirits in prison in his own person, but in the person of Noah;' in the 2d, he comments on the doctrine of the General Judgment; in the 3d, he strenuously maintains the tenet of Everlasting Punishment, undertaking to answer all objections to it: but he performs his task so very unsatisfactorily, that he concludes with offering 'it as his firm belief that God will not punish any one more than is consistent with infinite wisdom and infinite mercy.' In the last discourse, we are assured that there is 'a relation between water and life,' and then we are aukwardly exhorted to charity.

On the whole, we have perused Mr. Bingham's works with more surprize than satisfaction. He displays much learning, but in general it is learning without light. As a commentator on Scripture, he appears to want a clear and discriminating mind; and in order to serve his hypothesis, he often takes things for granted which require to be proved. Though we question not his attainments as a biblical scholar, we cannot suffer his pedantry in making references to the books of the O.T. by their Hebrew titles, to pass without notice: Genesis is quoted as the בראשית, of Moses; we are requested to compare Apoc. iii. 20. with שיר השירים chap. v. 2. (meaning Solomon's Song) and ב. דברי הימים xxii. 10. with the parallel place in ג. מלכים xi. 1. (meaning 2 Chron. xxii. 10. with 2 Kings xi. 1.) In many places, the Hebrew citations are incorrect; for which, perhaps, the Editor, and not the Author, is accountable.

* See Rev. Vol. xlvii. N.S. p. 300.

ART. VI. *A Treatise on Febrile Diseases*, including Intermitting, Remitting, and Continued Fevers; Eruptive Fevers; Inflammations; Hemorrhages; and the Profluvia; in which an Attempt is made to present, at one View, whatever, in the present State of Medicine, it is requisite for the Physician to know respecting the Symptoms, Causes, and Cure of those Diseases; with Experimental Essays, on certain Febrile Symptoms, on the Nature of Inflammation, and on the Manner in which Opium and Tobacco act on the Living Animal Body. By A. Philips Wilson, M.D. F.R.S. Ed. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh, &c. Vol. IV. 8vo. pp. 740. 9s. Boards. Printed at Winchester. London. Cadell and Davies.

WE announced some time ago the commencement of Dr. Wilson's undertaking*; the 2d and 3d Volumes we were not able to procure: but we now present our readers with an account of the 4th, by which the work is concluded. Having already gone through the diseases classed by Dr. Cullen under the heads of *Pyrexiæ* and *Exanthemata*, and a part of the *Phlegmasiæ*, the author now proceeds with the remainder of this class, beginning with the consideration of the *cynanche trachealis*. He divides the disease into two varieties, 'that which we sometimes meet with in adults, and that which attacks children from the time they are weaned until about 12 years of age:' but, as it appears that the age of the patient is the only circumstance by which these varieties are to be distinguished, we must regard this division as altogether unnecessary and improper. The symptoms of croup at its commencement are well delineated, and its fatal and rapid progress is traced with accuracy and precision. A disease has been described under the title of the acute asthma, which in some of its prominent features strongly resembles the *cynanche trachealis*, but which has been considered by others as an entirely different disease. The question is of some practical importance; and those writers, who have conceived that the diseases are not identical, have taken much pains to point out a sufficiently accurate diagnosis between them. After all, however, the point remains undecided; Michaelis and Rush regard the diseases as different, and Dr. Wilson appears to incline to their opinion; while Cullen, notwithstanding his accuracy of observation, was not able to distinguish them from each other. Dr.W. seems to suppose that the membrane, which in true croup is found lining the inside of the trachea, does not exist in the acute asthma: but at the same time he remarks that the presence of this membrane is not essentially connected with the characteristic symptoms of the disease, even when

* See Rev. Vol. xxxi. N. S. p. 41.

existing

existing in their most exquisite form. The peculiar ringing sound of the voice has certainly taken place when the membrane did not exist; and there has been undoubted proof of the existence of the membrane, where this peculiarity in the voice could not be discerned.

The appearances which this membrane presents on dissection have been minutely observed, with the view of ascertaining its cause and nature, but hitherto without much success.

'The preternatural membrane (says Dr. W.) presents different appearances in different cases. Sometimes, Michaelis observes, it is as thin as paper, in other cases so thick that it almost fills up the whole cavity of the trachea. It is often of different thickness in different parts, and the thickest part is sometimes the uppermost and sometimes the reverse. In some cases it is soft and pulpy, in other cases so firm and tough that it will bear maceration in water for several days; but however tough it is in the trachea, it becomes more tender in the bronchiæ, and is always soft before its termination. In some cases it is quite white, in others marked with red spots, and it is now and then uniformly of a dark colour, and sometimes even black. Some have thought this membrane possessed a vascular, others, a fibrous structnre; the former opinion appears erroneous, and the latter is not confirmed by general observation.'

Dr. Home supposed that the seat of the disease was in the mucous glands of the trachea, which were excited to secrete an unusually large quantity of fluid; and that, the thinner parts being evaporated, the remainder was converted into the form of a solid membrane. Dr. Rush considers the disease as spasmodic, and regards the membrane as an adventitious circumstance only. Others again imagine the membrane to consist of coagulable lymph, similar to the substance of polypi, and that its peculiar form is determined by its situation. Lastly, the opinion of Cullen is given, who supposes that it is an inflammation of the larynx, combined with a spasm of the glottis: 'but to this opinion,' as the present author remarks, 'by far the most probable, some objections might still be found.'

In Dr. Wilson's account of the treatment of the disease, we meet with a judicious selection from the experience of others: but we do not observe much original information. With respect to general bleeding, it is not easy to lay down any directions of universal application; the judgment of the practitioner must be exercised on each particular case, and he must be guided by the stage of the complaint and the constitution of the patient. There is less doubt respecting the use of emetics, though they are not free from opponents; and local bleeding has been recommended almost without exception. The use of antispasmodics is still undecided; they have had powerful advocates, but by others they have been deemed of little service.

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This dissonance of opinion may depend either on the different nature of the various forms of the disease, or on an essential distinction in the diseases which have been classed uuder the same name. We think that the author might, with propriety, have enlarged on the use of Calomel in this disease; and we were disappointed at not finding any notice of Senna, a medicine which has been so strongly recommended by some of the American physicians.

Dr. W. next treats successively of *Pneumonia*, *Peripneumonia notha*, *Gastitis*, *Enteritis*, and *Hepatitis*. As our limits would not permit us to enter into a minute examination of all the contents of this volume, we shall pass over these diseases, and dwell rather more particularly on the next two chapters, which relate to rheumatism and gout.

The remarks on Rheumatism are almost exclusively confined to the acute species; since this alone is a febrile disease, and therefore properly forming a part of Dr. Wilson's work. The necessity of dividing from each other two diseases that are so intimately connected, as the acute and chronic rheumatism, induces the author to offer some remarks on nosology in general.

'It would seem, (he says,) that in forming a system of nosology, our study should be to select the symptoms which characterise each disease in its perfect form, and arrange those together whose symptoms are most similar, without attending to the various gradations by which diseases run into each other. Is it our aim, in forming such a system, to assist the learner in enabling him to distinguish diseases? This is the simplest way; after he is acquainted with such a system, a single perusal of a system of practice will teach him the connection which diseases have with each other; this is not the purpose of nosology. Is it our aim in forming such a system, to assist the practitioner? This is the way in which we shall be most successful. I have freqnently had occasion to observe that where the symptoms are similar, the modes of treatment generally are so likewise. Even according to this plan, indeed, we shall often class together very different diseases, because in their most striking features they agree. Synocha and typhus are classed together, notwithstanding they are very dissimilar in their mode of treatment. But by classing diseases merely according to their symptoms, we shall, I believe, class together a greater number of diseases whose treatment is similar, than by pursuing any other method.'

The question is perhaps scarcely worth discussing:—though an attention to nosology may in some measure assist the student in the acquisition of medical knowlege, we apprehend that it can seldom be applied to the practice of the experienced physician.

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The symptoms and progress of this tedious and painful complaint seem to be accurately related, and the difficulty is pointed out under which we sometimes labour with respect to its diagnosis. The disease with which it is the most liable to be confounded is the gout; it appears indeed that the antients had no idea of any essential difference between them; and even in the present day, when their nature is on the whole so well understood, we are often much perplexed in individual cases to distinguish them. As it is a discussion of great practical moment, Dr. Wilson might have entered into it more fully, instead of merely referring us to the account of the symptoms of each disease. The increase of pain on motion, which he states as 'the diagnostic of rheumatism the most extensively applicable,' is certainly a very prominent symptom in gout.

In speaking of the treatment of acute rheumatism, the attention is especially directed to the employment of the different evacuations; and we are presented with an account of the various, and often contradictory opinions, that have been entertained on this subject. Since the author's object seems to be rather to bring forwards the sentiments of others than to decide between them, we are still left in much uncertainty: we may, however, remark that the *systematic writers* have been the most fond of the lancet; a circumstance which would lead us to suspect that they have been more guided by the place which rheumatism occupied in the nosology, than by the effect of the remedies applied to it. As we have become gradually emancipated from the tyranny of system, we are in the same ratio grown more cautious of that instrument. Sydenham, with that candor which is the attendant on real genius, confesses that in his early practice he was too liberal in its use. Among the remedies, respecting which the minds of practitioners may be considered as in a state of uncertainty, is the Peruvian bark. Dr. W. refers to it in a way which conveys to us the idea that he has never actually witnessed its effects: but the work of Dr. Haygarth, which has appeared since the performance now before us, will no doubt establish its character as a remedy in rheumatism. We are inclined to make the same remark with respect to opium and mercury; to neither of which medicines Dr. Wilson seems to have paid that attention which, we conceive, they deserve. We expected also to have met with some observations on the application of external cold, and the employment of digitalis.

We next enter on the consideration of Gout; on which complaint perhaps more has been written than on any other; and, as this author observes, 'on none, perhaps, has so much been said

to so little purpose.' After having quoted Cullen's definition, he details the symptoms attending a paroxysm of what has been called the regular gout; and the description, we are informed, is principally taken from Sydenham, which is found to be so full and accurate, that 'it is impossible to make any considerable additions to it.' On this part of the work, it is unnecessary for us to dwell: but it is somewhat remarkable that this illustrious author, who has furnished us with so admirable a picture of the disease in its most complete state, has not admitted the existence of the other varieties. Though evidently depending on the same morbid condition of the body, their appearance and progress are so dissimilar, and they are of such frequent occurrence, that succeeding writers have been led to notice their symptoms with much attention. Dr. Cullen, as is well known, subdivided the irregular gout into three varieties, but, we incline to think, unnecessarily.

Dr. W. remarks that 'to enter fully on a detail of all the symptoms which appear in what is called atonic gout, would be to give those of a large proportion of the complaints to which we are subject;' and he then enumerates its most striking features. It has been questioned whether this form of the disease can ever make its appearance, except in those who have previously suffered from an attack of the regular gout: but this must usually be ascertained, rather by attending to the general history of the patient, than from the present symptoms only; though we think that there can be no doubt of the reality of the occurrence. The atonic gout is especially apt to affect the different abdominal viscera; and among these, its most frequent attacks are made on the stomach. These complaints are often more painful, and of longer continuance, than in the regular form of the disease; and they assume so great a variety of appearances, that they perplex and baffle the most experienced practitioner. The affections of the thorax are perhaps not less distressing, but are happily less frequent; they sometimes assume the appearance of asthma, sometimes of *peripneumonia notha*; a violent palpitation is in some instances the prevailing symptom; and in others, a troublesome cough. To conclude the list of ailments which are referred to the atonic gout, we occasionally observe it attacking the nervous system, producing head ache, vertigo, and apoplexy. Since the symptoms of these various diseases, when considered as induced by a gouty constitution, are at least very nearly similar to the same diseases when occurring from accidental causes, it becomes a matter of no small difficulty to determine in what cases we are to denominate them idiopathic, and when merely symptomatic of gout. We are not acquainted

acquainted with any diagnosis that can assist us in this inquiry, except such as may be derived from attending to the history of the patient's constitution, and his previous complaints.

As there is perhaps no disease which subjects mankind to more pain and distress than the gout, it is lamentable that there are few which we have it less in our power to remove by the aid of medicine. On this account, it has at all times been a grand object to ascertain the remote causes of the disease, in order that we may at least avoid an evil which we are not able to cure. It happens, however, unhappily, that a very frequent remote cause of gout is one which, from its very nature is irremediable, *i. e.* an hereditary disposition. 'There are few complaints (says Dr. W.) in which an hereditary predisposition is more evident than in gout, and if this complaint appears before the middle of life, it is generally in those whose parents have laboured under it.' This position has indeed been controverted: but what position in the whole science has not occasionally met with its opponents? Difficult, however, as is this investigation, we have one fact on the subject which stands on the irrefragable basis of the most ample experience, viz. that gout never attacks the poor, who are scantily fed; yet the conclusion to be drawn from this fact is not so obvious as may at first view appear to be the case. It will no doubt immediately occur to every one, that the gout is derived from intemperance and indolence, but it must be admitted that the poor are perhaps fully as liberal in the use of intoxicating liquors as the rich; and there are some occupations, in which the lower classes are engaged, that occasion little exercise either to the mind or the body. There is an important difference between the quality of the food employed by the different ranks of society; yet it seems scarcely to accord with experience to ascribe the production of the disease to this circumstance. As in this country the use of wine is principally confined to the wealthy, it has been imagined by some that gout is produced by the habitual employment of wine, and not by the use of malt liquors or distilled spirits: but in contradiction to this opinion, it must be remarked that in those countries in which wine is employed as the common drink of the labouring poor, gout is equally unknown among them.—If we find it difficult to assign a probable remote cause for the gout, we shall perceive ourselves plunged into still more inextricable obscurity, when we attempt to discover its proximate cause. Yet, as it generally happens in the science of medicine, in proportion to the intricacy of the subject, have hypotheses been multiplied, and advanced with dogmatical confidence. Over these Dr. Wilson judiciously passes in a very brief manner, and pro-

ceeds to consider the treatment of the disease, first, as it appears in its regular form.

Viewing gout as a constitutional affection, the author properly observes that the removal of the inflammation is not the principal aim of the practitioner. 'The objects we have chiefly in view are so to remove the paroxysm that the succeeding interval may be as long as possible, and that any tendency to atonic gout may be obviated, the danger in gout proceeding neither from the local affection nor the general excitement, but from the paroxysm becoming frequent and irregular.' Respecting the use of evacuations during the gouty paroxysm, practitioners are nearly agreed; they may occasionally be employed with advantage, when any particular circumstance calls for their use: but they are not remedies that can be regarded as of indiscriminate application, nor as being possessed of any specific virtues. Concerning the effects of opium, much difference of opinion exists; and probably in this, as in similar cases, the truth may be in the medium. We are not disposed to place great reliance on any of the local applications that have from time to time acquired a degree of reputation, many of which are insignificant, and some dangerous; and in this last class, we do not hesitate to rank external cold. Dr. W. informs us that he had not seen Dr. Kinglake's work when he composed his remarks on gout; and consequently little notice is taken of the practice which has lately been recomended by that writer. We have perused Dr. Kinglake's performance with considerable attention; and, as we shall speedily give our sentiments concerning it, we shall not here enter on the discussion.

In the atonic gout, Dr. Wilson points out two indications of cure; to remove the symptoms of debility, and to restore the regular fits. 'It is to be observed, (he adds) that if we succeed in either of these indications, the other for the most part is answered at the same time.' Unfortunately, the means of fulfilling these indications are not much within our power; and all that we can effect is to be accomplished rather by a strict and uniform attention to regimen than by the use of any medicines. The author reviews the different remedies which have been recommended, and manifests considerable judgment in appreciating the degree of benefit which we may respectively hope to derive from them.—On the whole, we consider the chapter on gout as containing a valuable summary of the information which we at present possess on this subject; and if it does not promise any certain or immediate relief, we fear that this is to be ascribed, not to any want of skill or knowlege in the author, but to the deficiencies of his art.

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The volume concludes with some remarks on hæmorrhages; an ample and judicious account of *phthisis pulmonalis* and of dysentery; and an appendix containing 'an experimental essay on the manner in which opium and tobacco act on the living body,' which had been previously published in the year 1795.

Our readers will perceive that we have a favourable opinion of Dr. Wilson's labours: which, though they do not exhibit any prominent marks of genius, evince his judgment in the selection and arrangement of his materials. His treatise must be regarded as principally valuable to the student, but it may occasionally be consulted with advantage by the experienced practitioner.

Bos.

ART. VII. *Medical Sketches of the Expedition to Egypt, from India.* By James M'Gregor, A. M. Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, of London; Surgeon to the Royal Regiment of Horse Guards; and lately Superintending Surgeon to the Indian Army in Egypt. 8vo. pp. 260. 7s. Boards. Murray.

THESE sketches were originally composed in consequence of orders from the Court of Directors to the Government of India; and, from the character of the author, and the sources of information which he possessed, we may confidently affirm that the task could not have fallen into better hands. We are informed that, 'during an uncommonly long voyage, in a march over extensive deserts, and in a country and climate described as the most inimical to the human race, the Indian army enjoyed a considerable degree of health, and suffered but a small mortality.' This extraordinary exemption from sickness appears to be justly attributable to the exertions both of the military and the medical officers; and particularly to the attention which was paid to the comforts of the soldiers by the commander in chief, General Baird.'

Mr. M'Gregor divides his work into three parts; 'the first gives the medical history, or rather the journal, of the expedition: in the second, after attempting to assign the causes of the diseases which prevailed, some modes of prevention are offered: and in the third there is some account of the diseases.'

The army left India in the beginning of the year 1801, and arrived at Kossier, on the Red Sea, in May; and in June they commenced their march across the deserts. During this tedious expedition, they retained an unusually good state of health, although their progress was attended by many unfavourable circumstances. The heat was intense; for we learn that on the 29th June, at Le Gita, in the author's tent, 'at

three P. M. the mercury stood at 114°. In the soldiers' tents it could not have been less than 118°.' A burning wind also prevailed, which perpetually produced clouds of dust that penetrated into the stomach and lungs. During July, the army still remained in a very healthy state, encamped on the banks of the Nile, which now began to exhibit signs of its annual overflow. They afterward moved about 400 miles down the Nile, and were stationed at Rhoda, a small island formed by the river, on which the Nilometer is placed. Soon after their arrival at this spot, a fever broke out among them, and in three weeks the number of the sick was more than a thousand.

In September, the army removed to Rosetta; and on the 14th of the month, a case of plague was discovered. Every precaution for preventing the spread of the disease was immediately put in practice; yet other cases occurred, the hospital itself appeared to be infected, and it was found that the disease was prevailing among the inhabitants of the town. Ophthalmia now also manifested itself very frequently; and in the beginning of November the total number of sick in the army amounted to 1350, or more than one fourth part of its whole strength.

In December, they removed to Alexandria, a situation much more favourable to health than Rosetta; yet here cases of plague continued to arise, and in January the disease was more frequent and fatal. After having become less severe during the months of February and March, in April the sphere of infection again grew more extensive; some of the medical attendants were themselves seized with the disease, and four of them died: but in the following month its violence again declined, the army was more healthy, and crossed the deserts in order to return to India. The embarkation took place in June; and at this time, says the author, 'never, perhaps, was there an army embarked for any service more healthy than the Indian army was when it re-embarked on its return from Egypt.'

We now enter on the second division of the work, in which Mr. M'Gregor assigns the cause of the diseases, and details the mode of prevention. The troops who were sent on this expedition were composed of nearly equal numbers of Europeans and Indians: but the Europeans had been for some time either at the Cape of Good Hope or in India, and were therefore well prepared for the effects of heat. The author conceives that we are to attribute the diseases which prevail in Egypt, to some peculiarity in the climate and soil of this country. The exhalations proceeding in Lower Egypt from the lands which are left covered with mud, after the inundations of the Nile, influenced

fluenced by a warm sun, added to the total want of attention to cleanliness, must be considered as fully adequate to produce not only intermittent fevers, but even those which are attended with what are usually called putrid symptoms. The plague, however, the writer regards as an imported disease, and as propagated by contagion alone; yet it is evident that it must be diffused with more facility, when it occurs in a situation favourable for the increase of its violence.

In general, the mortality was observed to be more considerable among the Europeans than among the natives of India; and, although this may in some measure be attributed to an original difference of constitution, yet the author thinks that a part of it must be ascribed to the intemperance of the Europeans in eating and drinking; indeed, he notices one instance in which the effects were immediately perceptible. Mere heat appears to be less unfavourable to the human frame than it might at first view be supposed; for at the period of the greatest heat, and when the men were exposed to the most severe duty, they enjoyed the best health.

The third part of the work commences with some remarks on the plague. Mr. M'Gregor affords an ample testimony to the value of Dr. Russel's publication on this subject: confessing that, since his time, little addition has been made to our knowlege of the phænomena of the disease, and but little improvement in the method of treating it. He observes, however, that 'the proper and well-timed use of mercury, and, perhaps still more, the application of the newly-discovered remedies analogous in their effects to the calces of that mineral, hold out a prospect of success the most encouraging.' Dreadful as are the effects of this disease, we are induced to hope that much may be done in the way of prevention. The present author appears to entertain no doubt respecting its contagious nature; and he seems to think that, by the strictest attention in avoiding every source of infection, and particularly by adopting the utmost cleanliness and using the nitrous fumigations, its progress may be arrested:—he imagines that there is no danger but from actual contact.

It is observed that the plague assumes very different appearances, according to the countries and the seasons in which it is found; it has sometimes the symptoms of typhus, at others those of an intermittent; and the author was forcibly struck with the resemblance which it bore, in some instances, to the West Indian yellow fever. In order to convey a clear idea of the nature of the disease, he details the cases of seven of the medical gentlemen who were attacked by it, of whom only three recovered. The first case is that of Dr. Whyte; who, conceiv-

ing that the disease was not contagious, inoculated himself with matter taken from a bubo; on the third day he became indisposed, and, on the sixth, 'fell a victim to his own temerity.' Mr. M'Gregor then enumerates the different symptoms of the plague as they occurred to his observation, and offers some remarks on each of them.—It may appear somewhat difficult to form an exact idea of what he means by the plague; since he informs us that fever is not always present, and that in many instances there are no glandular swellings. In such cases, we must suppose that he determined the nature of the disease rather from concomitant circumstances attending its production, than from its actual symptoms.—The symptoms are enumerated in the order of their frequency, and are as follow: fever, tremors of the limbs, affection of the head, glandular swellings, affections of the abdomen, petechiæ, peculiarity of countenance, state of the pulse, of the tongue, affection of the lungs, and dry skin. The process of the disease was frequently very rapid, and its prognosis always doubtful.

Mr. M'Gregor lays down three indications of cure; 1st, to clear the *primæ viæ*, which is best effected by calomel; 2dly, to produce ptyalism and perspiration; and, 3dly, to obviate debility. Mercury is the remedy on which he places his principal reliance: but he is disposed to think favourably of the nitric acid, though, according to his own statement, it must be rather from theory than from actual experience of its effects. The more quickly a salivation could be excited, the more favourable was the termination. Bleeding, and the employment of stimulants, he decidedly condemns.—He has great confidence in the preventative effects of the nitrous fumigation.

Though much less dangerous, yet scarcely less troublesome was the ophthalmia. The author is inclined to regard it as contagious, and, we think, with reason; he believes that it may be prevented by frequently washing the eyes with cold water during the period of its prevalence.

After these observations on what may be considered as the two endemic diseases of Egypt, Mr. M'Gregor attends to the other complaints to which the army was subjected during the expedition. Of these remarks, the most important and original are those which relate to dysentery:—not only the most frequent but the most fatal disease which the army experienced. After having noticed the character which this complaint assumes in different parts of the world, he concludes that it ought to be divided into two species, one of which he calls the tropical dysentery, the other the dysentery of Europe; the former having its origin in the biliary system, while he supposes that the other is seated in the intestinal canal. It is the

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second disease which is described in the writings of Cullen, Sydenham, Pringle, &c., and from which the tropical form of the malady has not hitherto been discriminated. This latter modification, Mr. M'Gregor thinks, is so closely connected with diarrhœa, that he has always experienced difficulty in distinguishing them. He informs us, however, that 'mercury is now the remedy every where relied on,' for this state of the dysentery; a remedy which certainly is inadmissible in diarrhœa. The nitric acid has been also employed with success in this complaint.

The *sketch* which we have given of these *Sketches* will impress our readers with a favourable idea of their value. It is sufficient to add, that the volume communicates the observations of a man of judgment and experience, on topics of the first importance. The author is generally contented with relating what he saw, without deviating into speculation and hypothesis; though, from some parts of the work, we apprehend that he is infected with the chemical physiology. He seems to conclude that the operation of mercury and nitric acid must be similar, because they both act favourably on the same disease; and he occasionally hints at the oxygenation of the system:—but these are trifling defects, compared with the solid value of the work.

Bos.

ART. VIII. *Discourses on Theological and Literary Subjects.* By the late Rev. Archibald Arthur, M. A., Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow. With an Account of some Particulars of his Life and Character. By William Richardson, M.A., Professor of Humanity in the University of Glasgow. 8vo. pp. 523. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co.

WE learn that the discourses here given to the public 'were not intended by their author to be published as they now appear. With the exception of three or four, none of them ever seem to have been written over by him twice. The liberty taken in offering them to the public, was from the wish entertained by his near relations, of preserving and doing honour to his memory; which they thought could be done, even though the works to be published were as imperfect as has now been mentioned. In prosecuting their design, they requested the editor to make a selection of such discourses, and present them to the public in such a manner, as would best answer their intention. He undertook the office with much reluctance; and had he been aware of the great difficulty attending it, his reluctance would have been still greater. But his regard for the deceased overcame his objections.'

This regard ought, we think, to have induced so good a judge to a different determination,—at least with reference to the theological part of the volume. It is cruel to expose to the view of the world, those productions which were never designed by the writer to undergo that ordeal; and the partiality of relatives, who are often altogether incompetent to decide on such matters, should never be deemed of any weight. This remark applies with more force to a public than to a private character. Much might be expected from the person who fills the chair which was once contested by Burke, Hume, and Adam Smith; and therefore here it was not the individual alone who ought to have been considered, but the reputation of a respectable learned body was also involved. If we love the amiable feelings which gave way in this instance, we should have more approved the firmness which would have refused compliance with ill-judged solicitations. It is not difficult, from the above passage, to collect the real sentiments of the editor himself; and we believe that they fully coincide with our own.

Mr. Arthur appears to have been much wedded to the principles of the Scotch Metaphysical School, which pretended to make common sense the basis of its philosophy; and he connects with these principles the great truth which is the subject of his first discourse, the existence of a God, and reasons as if he thought that it could be demonstrated on no others. When he is contented to urge the usual arguments on any of the topics which he considers, he adduces them in an able and agreeable manner; as the following extract exemplifies:

'That the universe must have proceeded from a *designing* cause; and could not possibly have proceeded from a cause without design and intelligence, by whatever name it may be denominated, whether it be called chance, or necessity, or fate, is exceedingly obvious. Nothing beautiful, regular, and orderly, ever proceeded, or can proceed, from an undesigning cause. Suppose matter to have existed originally of itself, and to have been endued with motion from eternity; and suppose that motion to have been continued without diminution; there is no doubt, but these materials, continually agitated, would, in the course of millions of ages, have assumed various forms; but there is no probability, that ever these forms would have been regular; and much less that there should be regularity in all their revolutions, mutual connections, and dependencies. Did ever chance form a machine so regular as a watch? Throw the different wheels, and springs, and pinions, of which a watch is composed, into one vessel; and keep the whole in motion for ages; and after all, neither the whole, nor any part of them, will ever be properly placed and adjusted.—Take a case that has often been put in handling this argument. Suppose a triangular prism, with three unequal sides, and a scabbard perfectly adapted to it, to be both set in motion through empty space; grant both of them the power of altering their motions, and

and of flying up and down in every possible direction, it is infinity to one that they will never meet. Supposing they did meet, it is still infinity to one, that they do not meet in that one particnlar direction in which the prism will enter its scabbard. If chance, then, cannot effectuate those simple adjustments, to which the design of a child is equal, how can it be imagined that it should adjust the innumerable parts and revolutions in the universe? There is not the slightest shadow of probability to justify such a supposition. Even though chance should sometimes have stumbled upon a regular form, after a variety of trials, in the way that Epicnrus imagined men, and animals, and vegetables, to have been fashioned; these forms would again have been immediately destroyed, in the same manner that the monstrous appearances that had existed before them, in infinite multitudes, were destroyed, in consequence of the motion and changes of situation, which, upon that supposition, are always going on among the particles of matter. If chance never could arrange unorganized matter into those beautiful and regular forms with which we see it invested; could it, or necessity, or any blind cause, by whatever name it may be called, ever produce a being endued with life, sensation, intelligence, and the power of voluntary action? Can that which has itself no design or understanding, produce a wise and intelligent mind? The supposition is absurd. It is supposing an effect to be produced by an inadequate cause; which is precisely the same thing as to suppose it produced by no cause at all. It is strange that such an opinion should have ever been embraced by philosophers, the folly of which is manifest even to a child. An infant, if its bells on its rattle be taken away, never dreams that they were taken away by nobody, but immediately judges that they were removed by some person or other. Even a dog, if a stone be thrown at him, never imagines that the pain he feels arose without a cause. He either flies from the place, that he may be exposed to no further sufferings, or he turns with resentment to defend himself.'

Mr. Arthur is not equally successful when he is required to meet close reasoning, and to combat subtil disputation. The maxims of his school taught him to regard as replete with danger, Mr. Hume's doctrine relative to cause and effect; and in an evil hour he undertook to refute it. His mode might have proved satisfactory to his pupils, but we suspect that a different fate awaits it when submitted to competent judges.— In the much admired Essay on *Necessary Connection*, Mr. Hume denies that we have any knowlege of power, or of any necessary connection between cause and effect; he also oontends that we are never able to discover any quality which binds these together, and which renders the one an infallible consequence of the other. Here, in the judgment of Mr. Arthur, is laid the corner stone of atheism; and he stoutly sets himself to work to destroy it. It is unfortunate that, in order to clear his way, he has thought it necessary to subvert the foundation of Mr. Locke's philosophy, namely his doctrine on the origin

of ideas. Finding that Mr. Hume grounded his conclusions on this doctrine, he boldly denies it; tells us that we have many ideas which are neither derived from sensation nor reflection; and produces, as examples, our ideas of substance and identity. He ought first to have proved that we have an idea of substance, before he took the trouble of denying its derivation from certain sources; for it is to be observed that, though he will not allow that it is effected by sensation or reflection, he does not assign to it any other cause. Had the Professor looked into the elementary treatises on logic, he would have seen that the instance which he puts is there stated as being something unknown, in which qualities inhere; so that if the learned lecturer were in the situation of other men, which is that of having ideas only in the cases in which he had knowlege, we fear he would have been at a loss when called to produce this substance. What is our knowlege of any one single object? is it any other than that of its qualities? All beyond is supposition: a substratum in which they unite may or may not exist; whatever the fact may be, it lies beyond our view. The answer of the Philosopher, had the objection been urged to him personally, we conjecture would have been this; "Shew to me that the idea exists, which you maintain does not proceed either from sensation or reflection. In the mean time, I am at liberty to observe, that it is no mighty feat to demonstrate that certain sources are incapable of producing what never did exist. Believing as you did, that such an idea did exist, and negativing the generally received mode of derivation, it would have been condescending in you to have shewn what the source was, whence it did proceed."

'The idea of identity,' says Mr. Arthur, 'is neither derived from sensation nor reflection.' It would be perhaps affecting too great a precision of language, to object to calling that an idea which is made up of several ideas. Identity is a term which involves a proposition, or it may be considered as a general complex idea; let it then be restricted in its application to something determinate; let it also be analyzed into its component parts; and we shall not find any one of them which may not be traced to the allowed sources. The system of Locke, it seems, then, stands firm against the Professor's attack; and so far Mr. Hume comes off unhurt. We admit that it is because he thinks he has shewn that neither sensation nor reflection furnishes us with ideas of power or necessary connection, that Mr. Hume is led to deny our having any knowlege of these matters. The reader is aware that the Philosopher discusses less the things themselves, than our knowlege of them; that he does not absolutely controvert their existence, but that he simply

simply maintains that we have no proof of them; that, as far as our knowlege goes, there is no causation, there is nothing more than constant sequence or conjunction.

In the subsequent passages, the Professor makes liberal concessions to the Philosopher; for he admits that the idea of power cannot be collected from the operations of inanimate objects, and that the relation of cause and effect does not subsist among them:

'None, however, except beings possessed of understanding and will, can properly be said to be endowed with active power; or, to speak more accurately, none but beings possessed of will, are really endowed with it; for understanding is implied in the very notion of will, as no person can will an action of which he has no conception. Hence there is no propriety in ascribing efficiency or power to inanimate objects. Matter is inert, and can have no active power whatever. When we say that the stroke of a club is the cause of the motion of a ball, we use language metaphorically; and we do not really mean that the club is the cause of the motion, but that the intelligent and active being who holds it, and strikes with it, is the cause. The effect is the consequence of volition; and the mind of the agent is connected with it, notwithstanding the intermediate service of the club, no less than it is with those events where there is nothing intermediate, but the swelling of muscles, and the other involuntary motions of the human body. The club itself, we know, possesses no power; and though it and the ball were to be in conjunction for a century, no motion would ensuse from their position. —We are apt to speak of natural causes; we see motion produced in one body by means of another: But the language here is metaphorical, and no man believes that the body, which is considered as the mover, has in itself any power to communicate motion; but is, on the contrary, convinced that its motion is occasioned by something else.' —

'The notion of power in ourselves differs from the notion of it suggested by the revolutions and changes of the material world. With regard to our own power, we feel an inward conviction, by means of which we naturally and involuntarily connect our volition with its consequence.

'In observing those laws of the material world, on the contrary, which we usually denominate causes, in conjunction with the events which happen agreeably to them, we perceive no such natural and intimate connection. With respect to natural effects, we must gather our knowledge from experience and observation; and after collecting a variety of instances, must determine the law to be universal or partial. In this case, we are not judging, in reality, concerning cause and effect; we are gathering general conclusions from inductions of particulars; we are not thinking of power at all; nor do we speak of cause and effect, unless in a metaphorical and analogical sense. Power and efficiency are the attributes of a voluntary and intelligent agent, and of him only. Mind is the only cause with which we are acquainted; and in consequence of its exertions only, can effects be produced.'

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It follows, then, that both the parties agree in the positions, that flame is not the cause of heat, and that the vibration of a chord does not cause sound; that these are merely conjoined events; that there is a constant coincidence between them; that where the one takes place, the other ensues; and that our knowlege does not go beyond this invariable close succession. Causation, according to Mr. Arthur, is effected only where mind is concerned; when an act of volition is succeeded by an event, there, he says, is power, there is causation: in that case, there exists a necessary connection. How is this proved? —Mr. Arthur replies; 'in every action which we perform in consequence of our volition, we are convinced we exerted power; we are convinced that we are causes; and we are satisfied that there is a connection between our volition and the subsequent action.' In our turn, we would ask how long have the suggestions of our feelings been deemed infallible proofs in philosophical investigations? The common sense system is no doubt extremely convenient for solving difficulties, but we were not aware that it went the length which is here taken. The question is not, what our apprehensions are, which are here termed convictions: but whether these are correct, whether they are well founded? We have a conviction that the eye informs us of distances, and of the forms of objects: but it is not disputed that philosophy has taught us that this conviction is false; and that we owe this information to experience and association, not solely to the organ of sight. May not our conviction be really as fallacious in the case of a volition, and an act consequent on it? Let us examine what actually takes place on that occasion. The mind wills, the nerves are moved, the muscles contract, an impulse is given, an event follows. Do we see more of power, more of causation, or necessary connection, here, than in the case of flame and the vibrating chord? Do we discover in the one case, or in the other, any thing beyond conjoined events;—do we know any thing more? We may suppose a great deal, but suppositions are not knowlege.

'If actions' (says the Professor) 'did not proceed from our exertion of power, if they were not caused by us, we should regard them with indifference, and they would never occasion us any regret.' To this the answer is obvious, that however they originate, and in whatever way they are produced, the degree in which they concern us is the same, since we are equally involved in their consequences; and this consideration sufficiently accounts for the regret which we feel. When we examine subjects philosophically, we must discriminate between matter of conjecture and matter of knowlege: but this duty seems to have been overlooked by the Professor. It may be

be observed on the distinction made by Mr. Arthur between mental and physical causation, that our original conviction is as strong in the instances of the latter, as in those of the former. We are as firmly persuaded that flame causes heat, as that volition causes muscular motion. The fact of the invariable conjunction of these events effectually answers all practical purposes.

Mr. Hume contends that we derive all our knowlege of causes and effects from experience; and this clearly results from the hypothesis of no necessary connection. If we discover nothing in causes which would lead us, *à priori*, to infer the effects, it follows of course that we can only be taught that relation by experience. To shew that this consequence of his system is conformable to what actually exists, he remarks that if we only once observe a conjunction of objects, we do not immediately set up the relation of cause and effect, but that we do this after having seen them repeatedly conjoined. We never met with any thing more puerile than the Professor's manner of controverting this fact:

'If we saw one man stab another, it would be an event of which we had no experience; but though a single instance, we would have no more hesitation in referring it to its cause, and in saying that it proceeded from the anger or malice of the person who perpetrated it, than we would have, though we had seen fifty instances of a like nature.—It is needless to multiply instances. Cases every day occur in common life, where effects are presented to us of a different nature from any that we have formerly met with. We are sensible of their novelty, yet we do not hesitate in referring them to their proper causes. We do not wait till a variety of similar cases happen, that we may form our judgment by experience; but without any experience, we consider the cause and the effect as connected with one another; and this we do in the generality of instances, with as much certainty as if we had been accustomed to them all our lives.'

Were experience confined to the information which we derive from our own personal observation, it would be a scanty treasure indeed: but could Mr. Arthur be ignorant that, by conversation and reading, we make the experience of others our own? Had we never learned from others the effects of stabbing, should we infer, from the mere act, that the sufferer would die?

If, however, the success of the Professor in this arduous attempt has disappointed us, we must applaud his motives, since we learn from him that he regarded Mr. Hume's principles, concerning cause and effect, as the grounds of his atheistic conclusions. Yet, for our own part, we cannot perceive that they at all aid the sophisms, by which that philosopher endeavours to weaken the argument in favour of the existence of the supreme Being, as drawn from the marks of design visible in the works of nature.

nature. On either hypothesis, the analogy is equally open to attacks of the kind which he has advanced: but so completely is the ground, on which these stand, removed by Dr. Paley in his celebrated work on *Natural Theology*, that we shall never expect to see them in future advanced by sceptics.

Whether the doctrine here impugned be or be not the true one, most certain it is that it has no tendency to favour atheism. It even more requires the intervention of a Deity, and represents him as more immediately and universally a moving active cause, than its opposite system; it even directly accords with the hypotheses of those who recognized a divine interposition in every event that occurs; while it completely demolishes the bases on which have been constructed the rude systems of antient atheists, and the better considered though equally absurd schemes of their modern followers;—it also takes from materialists one of their main arguments in favour of the necessity of human actions. It is then clear that no consequences attach to this doctrine, which fairly ought to excite apprehension. Not only have some of the soundest heads, and the best judges, deemed this tenet innocent, but they have even sanctioned it by their adoption. In the list of those who have given it a preference, stand the names of Reid and Price, the cotemporary opponents of its celebrated author; to whom we may add those of Professors Waring, Robison, and Dugald Stewart. The truth is that, in the Essay on *Necessary Connection*, Mr. Hume is correct as far as he goes; and the only question is, could he have proceeded farther, or has he in this instance assigned to the region of chimeras what did not belong to it? Professor Arthur has attempted to convict him of having so acted, but has failed in the effort. As it is a grand point in metaphysics, we should be glad to see it treated by a more able hand, and the controversy with respect to it finally set at rest. No one will peruse the Essay on *Necessary Connection* without admitting that, as an able and ingenious disquisition, it has never been exceeded; that it has been composed in the true spirit of philosophy; and that in no part of his works do the unrivalled penetration and subtilty of the philosopher appear to more advantage. Whether it be possible or not to advance farther than he has gone, this we repeat will be conceded, that he has discovered the right track; and that, as far as he has travelled, we cannot safely separate from him.

We cannot help being of opinion that this Lecturer, when treating of theology, was little in his element, and that he had only occasionally devoted his mind to the subject. Many of his observations, however, when treading this ground, well deserve attention; his comments on Leibnitz's system of optimism will

will be perused with pleasure by the judicious reader; and they may be considered as indicative of what the author was capable of accomplishing when he called forth his utmost exertions.

The latter part of the volume is by far the most interesting. It consists of Literary Discourses. Those of them which treat of matters of taste are all valuable, and some of them in our judgment possess claims to superior praise. Objects of this nature appear to have engaged much of the author's consideration; his observations on them display great sensibility, are expressed with vivacity and felicity, and they will be contemplated by kindred minds with satisfaction. Our limits will not allow us nicely to examine the theoretical parts of these papers: but we do not so much commend these, as the incidental remarks which occur in illustration, and which stand on ground totally independent of them.—The Professor makes beauty depend altogether on 'colour and figure.' His hypothesis leads him to pass in review the disquisition of the same topic by Mr. Burke; and his criticisms on the performance of that great genius display much acuteness and originality. He admits that smallness is generally incident to beauty, but he complains of the want of precision in the language of Mr. Burke on this subject; observing that

'The true answer to the question, why beauty is inconsistent with largeness of dimension? appears to me to be the following.—In large figures there is a degree of uniformity, which produces an effect upon the mind, very different from that which is produced by beauty. The outline is carried on through a considerable length of space without any sensible inflexions. There is not that marked variation, that quick succession of parts, which is necessary for exciting a gay and lively emotion. In objects that are of smaller dimension, the changes in the outline are more rapid and sensible. Hence the emotion to which they give occasion is more lively and cheerful. A beautiful object, of consequence, must not exceed that size which admits of such quick and sensible variations of surface. But in a great variety of objects, where the structure and form of the several parts which constitute the object is diversified, bodies, of magnitudes considerably different from one another, may all of them be possessed of beauty, in perfect consistency with this principle. The long neck of the swan is no deformity, but on the contrary is an ornament; because in the natural posture of that bird, it is moulded into an elegant curve, in which all the parts insensibly run into one another. The magnitude, then, of beautiful objects, must be limited in such a manner as to be consistent with this general property which all of them appear to possess, and may therefore be ascertained with a sufficient degree of accuracy.'

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The Professor allows smoothness to be a concomitant of beauty, but denies that of itself it can ever be an ingredient of that quality:

'I apprehend that the pleasant effect produced by smooth objects, is principally owing to that glossiness which they commonly possess; in consequence of which, they reflect the rays of light that fall upon them, on the eye of the spectator. If a surface appear to be perfectly uniform throughout, notwithstanding the highest degree of smoothness, it will excite no sensation of beauty. In order to render it agreeable, it is requisite that there should appear upon it diversity of colour, or at least, different shades of the same colour connected with one another. This effect is more completely produced, when there is some degree of curvature in the polished substance, than when it is perfectly level. Whenever this is the case, it occasions a much greater variety in the colours of the rays of light that are reflected. The leaves of trees, the petals of flowers, and the feathers of birds, are all constructed so as to be convex on the one side and concave on the other; and accordingly, they produce the effect of their glossy smoothness in the most perfect manner.'

Great merit is here ascribed to Mr. Burke for representing beauty as consisting in gradual variation of form in general; instead of confining it, as had frequently been done by others, to any particular curve.

Delicacy, the Professor contends, is never of itself (any more than smoothness) an ingredient of beauty, but it may be incident to objects that are beautiful. Had he studied in a different school of philosophy, he would have allowed that the sensation excited by delicacy might be opposite in its nature to those which call forth the feeling of beauty; and that still it might, when associated with those which produce that effect, heighten the feeling to which, taken separately, it bears no relation.

In the other miscellaneous papers comprized in this volume, we do not meet with any thing which particularly challenges notice; they are of unequal merit, though all of them bear marks of intelligence and information.

From a short account of the Professor, which is inserted at the close of the work, it appears that he was a very interesting person, endowed with superior natural ability, and distinguished by great worth and very considerable attainments.

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ART. IX. *An Essay on the Principle of Commercial Exchanges*, and more particularly of the Exchange between Great Britain and Ireland: with an Enquiry into the practical Effects of the Bank Restrictions. By John Leslie Foster, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. pp. 209. 5s. Boards. Hatchard. 1804.

ART. X. *The Principles of Currency and Exchange illustrated by Observations on the State of the Currency of Ireland, the high Rates of Exchange between Dublin and London, and the Remittances of Rents to Irish Absentees.* By Henry Parnell, Esq. 12mo. pp. 186. 4s. Boards. Budd. 1805.

THE immortal work of Montesquieu would possess inestimable value, if it only impressed us with the difficulties of legislation, and solely directed our attention to instances in which the effects of laws, and the proposed objects of the enacting authority, have proved widely different. It frequently happens that the course of human affairs renders innovations necessary. If, however, they are occasionally indispensable, they invariably require, in matters of moment, to be introduced with delicacy and caution; and, if they affect the frame of a government, or the mode of its administration, they should be conducted under the guidance of the highest wisdom and the profoundest experience which a state can call into action. Yet where is that foresight to be found, which can discern all the consequences of a new and untried political regulation?

It is well known that the emergence, which led to the enactment restricting the Bank of England from making good its engagements in cash, occasioned in this country a general alarm; and that the remedy, with which it was proposed to meet the danger, was not received with a different emotion. The intelligence of a most important and brilliant victory materially assisted the contrivers of the salvo to obtain a favourable reception in the first instance; and as it happens in most cases, so it proved in this, that *ce n'est que le premier pas qui côute*: the difficulties attending its progress diminished in each stage, and it finally acquired the sanction of the legislature.

The measure to which we allude, in itself considered, was by no means equivocal. It had recently been known only as a revolutionary device, and had never been practised on a large scale, or for any length of time, under a regular government. We had recently seen its bitter fruits gathered in our own vicinity. The dangerous power, we admit, was in this country entrusted to persons superior to suspicion, and was to be exercised under the eye of Parliament: but still, as its depositaries are men, they are liable to err; and besides there may be in the measure itself, if suffered to continue, those seeds of evil, against the effects of which no human skill or address can protect.

On the whole, we cannot refrain from wishing that, while this regulation remains in force, public vigilance may be ever awake to guard, as much as may be practicable, against the mischiefs to which it may lead. It was our antient, safe, and wise policy to entrust as little as possible to discretion; and to allot to power, wherever lodged, precise and well defined limits.

It will perhaps be said that this measure has rendered us capable of exertions which have augmented our consideration, increased our influence, and extended the sphere of our activity: but if it has immediately led to these flattering consequences, and if it has temporarily raised us above our natural situation, it is not yet determined whether it has secured for us any solid or permanent advantages. It is a part of a great whole, which is as yet incomplete. What the judgment will be which posterity will form of it, we shall not here attempt to anticipate.

Our unfortunate sister island, disregarding past examples, furnishes us with an additional warning. Abusing the regulation in question, if unsupported, she must ere this time have plunged into bankruptcy; and as it is, she is suffering all the evils of a discredited paper currency. As we sympathize in her fate, let us also learn wisdom from it: she reads us a lesson, by which if we do not profit we shall be indeed without excuse.

The investigation of the financial difficulties under which Ireland laboured, which was made in the last session of Parliament, is highly creditable to the honourable persons engaged in it, merits the warm acknowlegements of the people of that country, and must satisfy them that, as far as the Legislature is concerned, their interests will not suffer. The principles on which they proceeded, the views which they entertained of the mischief, and the remedy which they proposed for it, exactly correspond with those which had before occurred to the authors of the two able tracts now under review; which, though antecedent in date to the Parliamentary Report, will be found in fact materially to elucidate and expound that able and important communication.—It follows, from what we have just observed, that there is a striking coincidence between the opinions of these two authors; and such being the case, we take the liberty of including both performance in one article. What obligations either may owe to the other, or what may be reciprocally due between them, we have not the means of determining.

In the preliminary part of Mr. Foster's elaborate work, he discusses and illustrates various abstract points which are of general interest, in order to prepare his readers for accompanying him in his subsequent reasoning. The treatise, on this ac-

count alone, well deserves attention from novices in the important science of political economy.

The effect of a foreign expenditure, Mr. Foster observes, is to increase the mass of industry at home, and to force the produce of the excess thus created to pass out of the country. The foreign subsidies of England, he remarks, had this operation; and, during the period of their being remitted, our exports to Germany, which never before had amounted to two millions a year, averaged four times that sum. This increase was rendered necessary to enable us to procure the specie which we had engaged to transmit, or to answer the bills of exchange that were drawn on us: but we are not hence to suppose, (he adds,) as some have done, that the subsidies, by calling forth these additional exertions, and by creating this surplus of exports, enriched the country. This was not the case, because the capital was spent on the unproductive labour of our fleets and armies, and on that of the hired troops. In a political view, it may have been expended beneficially, but, commercially considered, it was so much capital lost to the state, with all its influence in calling forth and animating industry; and it was replaced, not as in the regular course of things, by the foreign commerce, but by the British public.—Mr. F. calculates that the real balance of trade in favour of Great Britain, in the course of the last century, amounted to little short of five hundred millions; and he states that this surplus was principally consumed in foreign expenditure. It appeared in evidence before the Committee appointed to examine into the affairs of the Bank, that our disbursements abroad, in the short space of four years, at one particular period, amounted to the enormous sum of thirty-three millions!

Both these authors ably and candidly examine the case of the absentees. Two millions, it is conjectured, are annually remitted to these claimants; and, on the principles before laid down, the necessary effect of this foreign expenditure must be to force an excess of exports to that amount out of the country. Mr. Foster thus expresses himself on this subject:

'Perhaps the most correct mode of considering the effect of the absentees in the abstract would be, that, had they continued in Ireland, they would have given birth to a quantity of produce equal in value to their rents, and *consumed it in Ireland;* but that, living in England, they still give birth to an equal amount of Irish produce, *but consume it in England.* The productions of Irish industry, and the consumption of it, are equal in both cases; but in the latter the produce passes through the Custom-house in its way to the consumer, and therefore falls under observation. But though the quantities produced and consumed in both cases appear to be the same in value, they are certainly different in the nature of the items of which they are composed.

The Irish produce, which would have been consumed in Ireland had the proprietor remained at home, would have been such as his taste and pleasure should have dictated; but, on his emigration, they become such as the foreign market shall demand. The consumers also are different: for it is not to be supposed that the absentee spends his income in the purchase of Irish commodities; on the contrary, *he* spends his Irish rents in the encouragement of English industry; but then he is the cause that others become the consumers of Irish produce of another description, and to an equal amount. The Irish producers are also different Had the proprietor remained at home, he would have called forth industry, probably on his own estate, and in its immediate neighbourhood; but, when settled in England, the proprietor of an estate in Munster may perhaps, to a much greater degree, encourage the industry of Ulster. It is he, indeed, that gives birth to the quantity of produce; but the quality must be decided by the demand of the foreign market. It is this circumstance, perhaps more than any other, which has made the absentee the object of jealousy in Ireland. The traveller who sees the neglected fields and miserable habitations of his tenants, often can trace out by ditches and hedges the line of demarcation between the estates of the absentee and the resident; but as he cannot see, so he omits to recollect the circumstance, that the prosperity of the tenants of the resident may possibly be in consequence of the demand for their produce occasioned by the absentee.'

Mr. Parnell, expatiating on the same topic, remarks;

'In reasoning upon the effects of the remittances to the absentees, no hesitation is felt in laying it down as a position not to be controverted, that the opinions usually entertained of the injury they do to Ireland as tending to diminish its wealth are altogether erroneous. The want of residence does undoubtedly do mischief, looking to the manners and to the police of the country; but the want of expenditure, considering only the disposal of the absentee rents, is not actually felt; for, whether the amount of the rents is applied to purchase goods to be consumed in Ireland, or to be exported from Ireland, the effect upon the wealth of the country is precisely similar; and this is exactly the difference between a landlord who resides, and a landlord who is an absentee. The one returns his rents into the sources of internal industry by purchasing articles which he consumes in Ireland, the other by purchasing articles which he exports from Ireland; for if it is fact, that no specie circulates in Ireland, and that Irish Bank paper will not circulate in England, by what other means can these rents of absentees be remitted, except by the export of the productions of Ireland? That portion, therefore, of the annual income of Ireland which belongs to absentees, and has commonly been considered to be annually taken from the stock of the national wealth, has been contributing to the further accumulation of the national wealth, as much as any other portion of the general income from land or other resources.'

The same writer, in closing his representation of this matter, makes the following fair acknowlegement; which he accom-

panies with hints that lay serious claim to the consideration of the parties concerned:

'When we come to consider the effects of so much of the property of Ireland being possessed by absentees, in a manner distinct from the effects of it, when considered only with regard to the national wealth of Ireland, it must be admitted, that serious injury attends the non-residence of so many persons of great fortunes, and the want of that kind of influence which is so useful amongst the lower orders of the people. But much of this injury might be prevented by a better practice of management of absentee property. It is scarcely credible, how little value is derived by the landlord from property of this kind in comparison to that which it is capable of yielding; and this in consequence of the same mismanagement that renders the tenantry upon it more wretched and more distant from civilized habits, than the tenantry in general of Ireland. This mismanagement arises from the inattention of the proprietors in appointing their agents, and the further inattention of them in controlling their proceedings. If men were selected who were of respectable character, and of that order in society as to enable them to combine the duties of an agent and a magistrate, little more would be wanting to prevent any injury from arising from this system of absentee property, than the occasional visits of the landlords themselves. Where such a practice has been followed, the advantages in point of income to the landlord, and in point of amendment in the state of the tenantry, have been beyond calculation; it is one that contributes most effectually to promote the internal improvement of Ireland, and is deserving of being adopted with earnestness by every landlord, who cannot or does not wish to reside there.'

The Parliamentary discussions of the last year can have left none of our readers ignorant that the rates of exchange between London and Dublin were most unfavourable to the latter, varying from 8 to upwards of 11 per cent. Most persons also know that the currency of the two countries differs; occasioned by the variation in the copper coinage of Ireland, thirteen pence of which are included in a shilling. A sum, therefore, in British currency, exceeds one of the same denomination in Irish by one twelfth; and hence it follow, that 100l. British are equal to 108l. 6s. 8d. The exchange is calculated on a hundred pounds; and therefore, when at par, the exchange between England and Ireland is 8l. 6s. 8d., or $8\frac{1}{3}$. Previously to the measure of the Bank restriction, the exchange was in favour of Ireland: but, since that period, it has been gradually advancing in an opposite course, and was as high as 19 in the year 1804; that is, $10\frac{2}{3}$ above par.—The object of these tracts is to explain this financial phænomenon.

It is an undoubted fact that the ordinary variations in the rates of exchange, between different countries, is occasioned by a balance of debt; the value of bills of exchange, like the

value of all other articles, depending on the proportion between demand and supply. In the creditor-country, the bills on the debtor-country will be abundant, and therefore cheap; while, in the debtor-country, the bills on the creditor-country will be scarce, and of course dear; the supply, as Mr. Foster expresses it, being in each case inversely as the demand. The rates of exchange between bills are regulated by precisely the same considerations which determine the rates between all other commodities: but it is very justly observed that the variation produced in rates of exchange by this cause, namely, a balance of debt, has a known invariable limit; which is that of the expence of transmitting gold from the one country to the other. It therefore follows that the variation in the rate of exchange between England and Ireland, arising from this cause, cannot much exceed two per cent. Between England and the Continent, it will, on the same principle, admit of a variation considerably higher. We are then compelled to look out for other causes, to account for the enormous high rate of exchange against Ireland. A balance of debt, if there were such, we have seen would only account for a little more than two per cent. out of that excess above par, which has been so high as $10\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.:—but this cause, in respect to Ireland, never actually existed. Examining the debtor and creditor account between the two islands, we find that Ireland is the creditor party; and that, during the years in which the rate of exchange has been highest against it, there has been annually a balance in its favour of more than half a million. As far, then, as balance of debt goes, it gives an exchange of about 2 per cent. against England; and allowing to this cause its proper weight, instead of diminishing, it swells the difficulty which we have to remove, for it gives us 13, instead of nearly 11 per cent., for which we are to account.

A balance of debt is not, then, the sole cause of variations in the rates of exchange. We have seen that such variations have a fixed limit; and they are also limited not only as to amount, but likewise in regard to duration. Let us suppose the rate of exchange to be unfavourable to a country; a part of its specie is sent out of it; this raises the value of what is left behind, it becomes scarce, and less of it can be given for the same quantity of commodity; this is cheapness. The cheapness works an outlet for the commodity into foreign countries, which goes on while the cheapness continues; that is, till gold enough has found its way into the country, to allow of the same portion of it to be given for commodities as before the unfavourable exchange. The diminution of specie, which follows on the exportation of gold occasioned by an unfavourable rate of exchange,

change, causes fewer importations to take place; for cheapness checks imports as much as it forces exports: thus we see that, by the admirable laws which regulate the course of human transactions, an unfavourable rate of exchange operates its own cure, and effects that level in commerce without which it would cease to be carried on. An unfavourable exchange, by operating as a premium on exports, and as a check on imports, bears in itself the seeds of its own annihilation; and in a healthy and sound state of bodies politic, it can be of no long continuance. It is impossible sufficiently to admire this wise provision of nature, which prevents human affairs from falling into irretrievable confusion. Suppose a nation to betray almost incredible improvidence for a short period; the consequence will be, that a greater quantity of gold will be taken from her when the balance comes to be settled: but the greater this sum is, the higher will be the artificial value allotted to the remainder; that is, the less will be the quantity of the same metal given for the same commodity:—in other words, the greater will be the cheapness, and of course the larger will be the exports, and the fewer the imports. The more ground there is to work up in order to attain the level, the more is the operative force tending in that direction; and, in proportion to the intenseness of the action, is that of the re-action; the greater the mass of specie is, that has been extracted from a country, the greater will be the tenacity with which it adheres to the remainder, and the attraction with which it draws to itself a foreign supply. These illustrations apply only to exhaustions occasioned by improvident speculations in commerce, and reasonable voluntary grants made on political considerations to other states; not extending to those copious drainages to which outward violences sometimes give rise,—violences which impair the functions and affect the vitals of a community. Had certain eminent writers, and among others Swift, (it is observed by Mr. Foster,) been aware of this law of nature, they would not have indulged in some predictions which the event has proved to be unfounded. It was supposed, during a great part of the last century, that the remittances to absentees regularly drained Ireland of its specie; and an author had so fully satisfied himself respecting the rate at which this drainage proceeded, that he assigned a period at which her last guinea would be taken from unhappy Hibernia: while, in fact, notwithstanding that the absentees did not decrease, nor their demands diminish, the quantity of specie went on regularly increasing. The mischief of which the absentees were very innocent, the resident representatives of Ireland, at a later period, found the means of effectually accomplishing,—we mean the banishment of coin.

The size and permanence of the excess above par of the rate of exchange against Ireland, without the fact of its being the debtor-country, demonstratively shew that it must have another cause than the balance of debt. Where shall we find that cause? It is shewn by a superfluity of proof, by both these writers, to arise from the depreciation of the currency of Ireland. The fact admits not of a doubt. Ireland exhibits all the symptoms usually attending such a currency. The market price of bullion is considerably higher than the mint price. The paper has undergone a discount, which, commencing at three-fourths, gradually increased till it has reached 10 per cent. The country suffers from an unfavourable rate of foreign exchange; from the disappearance of coin of the smaller denomination; from the absence of a favourable exchange with England, in consequence of the latter being the debtor-country, and also of the small depreciation of its Bank notes *.

This demonstration *à priori* is corroborated by notorious facts. Immediately that the Bank was restrained from making its payments in cash, it began to increase its issues of paper; and it continued this system till the amount of its notes nearly quintupled the aggregate of those in circulation previously to the restriction. One-fifth of this vast mass replaces the paper which circulated before the restriction, and two-fifths more come in the room of the gold which that measure forced out of the country. The remaining two-fifths operate to swell the circulating medium beyond what it was in 1797, the epoch of the restriction, as well as that of the commencement of the unfavourable exchange.

No one will dispute that, the quantity of industry and the demands of a country remaining the same, any addition to its circulating medium will, in the proportion of its amount, depreciate that medium. There is no reason for supposing that the industry of Ireland has materially increased since 1797. Currency is to be distinguished from capital; let a sum, as 100, be added to the capital, and it will perhaps not require a greater sum than as 1 to be added to the currency. It cannot therefore be supposed, for a moment, that Ireland can have made such addition to its capital as can require any thing like the addition above stated to its circulating medium; to say nothing of the issues of paper by private bankers, which are reported to be immense. It is then clear that the additions made to the currency by the Bank, and by private bankers, must have had

* It appeared in evidence before the committee that 2¼ per cent. were given in London, to procure gold. The unfavourable exchange with foreign countries proves the same fact.

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the effect of depreciating it; and this depreciation is justly estimated at the premium which is given for guineas, viz. 10 per cent.

It is very obvious that, if the currency of a country be reduced in value, it will occasion the rate of exchange to be nominally against it: but that it will be, as far as it is caused by a degraded currency, only nominally and not really against it, may thus be made apparent:—let us instance the cases of England and Ireland; let us suppose the exchange at 18⅓; an Irishman must give 118l. 6s. 8d. for a bill of 100l. on London: but if the 118l. 6s. 8d. only represent the same quantity of commodities which 108l. 6s. 8d. of the old currency represented, it is clear that the exchange is only nominally against Ireland. The real variation takes place only when the currency remains the same, and when the unfavourable rate is limited and temporary, as we have before shewn.

We have, we imagine, abstracted a sufficient number of facts and observations from the two authors, to satisfy our readers that the Bank restriction, and the consequences to which it led, have exclusively caused the unfavourable rate of exchange which presses so hard on our sister island. It now remains for us briefly to state the remedy which the same persons recommend to be applied to mitigate the evil. The only effectual measure for this purpose they state to be that of compelling the Bank to renew its payments in specie: but this, if not impracticable, they regard as not likely to be adopted in present circumstances. It is observed that, previously to the restriction, no sooner did an unfavourable rate of exchange take place, than a run commenced on the Bank for gold; and the consequence of this was that the directors, as soon as they perceived any symptoms of such a change, began to lessen their issues of paper, and at the same time contracted their discounts. This diminution of the circulating medium raised its value, and in course the value of that part of it which consisted of gold, and thus the inducement to export it was destroyed. For the same reason, imports diminished and exports increased, till the balance with foreign countries became even, and the exchanges diminished to a par. Thus did the convertibility of its paper into gold oblige the Bank to keep the equilibrium of the exchanges. Now that it has no interest, as a Bank, to preserve this balance, but a strong opposite interest, how is this most important object to be attained? This is a question which these tracts endeavour to solve.

Too confined a circulating medium, it is observed by both writers, is undoubtedly prejudicial; it checks individual enterprize, and retards the advances of a community towards wealth;

while one that is too large is attended with much more serious mischiefs, being pregnant with all the ills which precede, accompany, and follow a national bankruptcy. There is, as is here suggested, a mean with regard to a circulating medium, which secures public prosperity. If, as Mr. Foster intimates, we have no general rules on which we can proceed *à priori* to ascertain this middle point, he tells us that Banking on the system of payments in cash invariably ascertains it in practice. If the circulating medium exceeds its legitimate limits, it instantaneously experiences depreciation; it decreases in value, compared with those of neighbouring states; the rate of exchange becomes unfavourable; and money dealers are tempted to export the specie part of it. This brings the paper back to the Banks, and they experience a run. The paper which thus returns is cancelled; and the discounts are at the same time lessened. It is evident, then, that where paper is convertible into specie, the undue augmentation of the circulating medium soon effects its own cure; it first causes an unfavourable exchange; this occasions the exportation of specie, which ends in a run on the Banks; while the dread of stoppage induces them to withdraw their paper as fast as they are able, from circulation. This appears to be the grand function which renders the use of specie indispensable in commercial transactions; it prevents the possibility of a pernicious increase of the circulating medium;—a mischief which, if allowed to extend to any length, proves to be the most prolific of political and individual calamities, of any with which humanity is visited:—it produces directly that effect, without which there would be no guarantee for public morals, the security of property, and the existence of states.—To oblige the Bank of England to resume its payments in specie would beyond all question remedy the evils, would remove the unfavourable exchange, and duly reduce the circulating medium: but the patient is too unpleasantly circumstanced, and is too much debilitated by a diseased state of long continuance artificially brought on, to admit of the immediate application of this remedy. It is recommended then, by both these gentlemen, that the Bank of Ireland shall be compelled to make its payments in Bank of England notes, or bills on London at par. This, in the first instance, would be attended with much expence: but Mr. Foster and Mr. Parnell are each of opinion that the Irish Bank may, without injustice, be constrained to incur it. If parliament feels too much tenderness for the Directors, to force them to this unpalatable measure, the two authors are ready to give their sanction to the plan proposed by the committee; which only differs from that which we have just stated, by recommending

commending that the London fund should be provided by government, and not by the Irish Bank. Our limits will not permit us to expatiate on the possible effects of this last proposal. Mr. Foster appears to be fully aware of them. The more eligible method, it strikes us, would be to oblige the Bank, in the first instance, at its own expence, to take whatever steps shall be thought expedient to relieve the public from those evils which its conduct has occasioned; a conduct which, to say the least of it, was highly improvident. If it should be found necessary in the event to assist the Bank, there would be no objection to its being done by government. —It is presumed, by these gentlemen, and by the committee, that the measure above stated would have the effect of removing the unfavourable exchange, and of reducing within due limits the circulating medium.

We must not omit to advert to what is stated in these two publications, respecting the effects on Ireland, which are caused by loans made for its use in London. It is observed by both the writers that, previously to the loans, the remittances made to the absentees forced a proportionate excess of exports out of the country. The loans, they remark, have paralyzed these exertions; the balance of debt caused by the remittances being liquidated by the advances in the way of loan, and which can only find admittance into the country in the shape of imports. Prior to the loans, exports were sent out sufficient to satisfy the foreign demands; on the contrary, from the date of the commencement of the loans, these have gradually diminished in the port of Dublin, till at length they have been considerably exceeded by the imports. The loans, the authors state, can only be remitted either as imports, or in discharge of demands which would have been met with exports. This mode of raising loans, each gentleman represents as most baneful; each regards it as a temptation to extravagance; or, to use the words of Mr. Foster, 'Ireland exhibits the singular example of a country, whose industry has diminished in the same ratio, in which the demands against her have increased.'

The financial state of Ireland is, we believe, far more distressing than most people in this country are aware. It is inundated with a depreciated paper; every denomination of coin has disappeared; and even the base shillings, of which thirty-five were given in exchange for a guinea note, have not been able to maintain their ground. The Bank only ventures to issue dollars at a nominal value, exceeding the real at the rate of 27 per cent. The poor of the whole of the three southern provinces, with the exception of those of Dublin, are obliged to conduct their dealings by means of 5s., 3s. 6d., 2s. 6d., and

1s. notes

1s. notes of private Bankers. Not fewer than a score of Bankers are thus often to be found in the smaller towns; the notes are often forged; and the makers of them frequently become bankrupt. In such a state of things, the fate of the lower class must be inconceivably distressing; and this wholesale calamity is chargeable solely on the measure of the Bank restriction and the abuse made of it by the Directors. It happened that the land proprietors and the trading body of the province of Ulster refused to receive Bank notes; and the consequences have been that coin never ceased to circulate in that part of the country, that the exchange between it and London has remained favourable, and that its inhabitants have been strangers to the distresses which have afflicted the south.

The present authors, and the committee, impute the calamities of the country to the conduct of the Directors of the Bank of Ireland. It is discussed, however, in measured terms, in Mr. Foster's work, and in the parliamentary report: but in the pages of Mr. Parnell, it is treated with less ceremony. He observes that,

'Whilst they were obliged to pay their notes in specie, a certain degree of caution was necessary in extending their discounts, and it was impossible for them to make their issues excessive. When this obligation to pay in specie was removed, they were at once relieved from a restraint, which they must always have considered as a great obstacle in the way of their interests. And it would appear from what has since taken place, that the liberty they acquired obliterated every sentiment of duty to the public, and gave vent only to such feelings and such measures as could only be the result of an inordinate thirst for gain. The depreciation of their paper cannot now be viewed in any other light than as a work of usury. The violation of every money contract in the kingdom has been of no weight in the scale when placed in competition with the 5 per cent. to be made by accommodating the merchants of Dublin. Nor have these guardians of the commercial interests of Ireland permitted their measures to be influenced by the burthens imposed upon trade by the high rates of exchange. Though their proceedings may have arisen from a want of discrimination in comprehending the injury which might result to the public by a depreciation of the currency, and to themselves by being the source of a public calamity, it is, however, necessary for them to consider well the sentiments which are entertained respecting the credit and the utility of the Bank.—

'The Directors should remember, that their corporation was established as a measure of public utility; that it received many privileges from the public through Parliament, and enjoys much of its profits from the species of Banking monopoly which it possesses. When a charge therefore is brought against this institution of such a heedless exercise of its powers, as that of inundating the country with its paper; of diminishing the value of the greatest portion of the property of the country; of establishing a ruinous rate of exchange; and of bringing

bringing upon the state all the calamities attending a depreciated currency, it is full time for those who are interested in its future welfare to make an atonement to an injured public by some change in their system. It would be unreasonable in the Bank Proprietors to expect, it would be unjustifiable in Government and Parliament to permit, a further trial of such a system of Banking, if, after the consequences which have attended it, it be persisted in. To know that it is persisted in, it is only necessary to examine the amount of notes in circulation in February and November 1803. It was not to be expected after the conduct of the Directors had been so severely censured in Parliament in the early part of 1803, after the writings of Mr. Boyd, Sir Francis Baring, Mr. Thornton, and Lord King, had fully explained that a depreciation must necessarily result from an excessive issue of paper, that the increase in their issues should be no less in the short period between February and November, than 328,179l. When it is also in the recollection of every one, that in the month of last December, an advertisement in the public papers announced a dividend of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and a bonus of 5 per cent. upon the stock of the company, who can say that the Bank of Ireland, incorporated by the public, and receiving from the public every benefit of monopoly, have fulfilled their duty?'

The performances before us are not to be regarded as trifles of the day. They immediately relate, it is true, to occurrences which we trust will prove to be only transient, but to occurrences which are very far from being of an ordinary nature. They contain facts which will be always important; and elucidations of serious points of political economy which will never fail to be read with interest. They farther note and expose errors which offer important lessons to the Parliament and people of this island, and which we trust will not be thrown away on the one or the other. Mr. Parnell's description of the situation of the Irish Bank Directors applies to that of certain other personages, who have similar unlimited authority vested in their hands, and who have it in their power to affect an infinitely more vast system of general prosperity.

'However great the authority and enlarged the control of the Bank over the commercial world, by the nature of its first institution, inferior indeed were its powers at that time in comparison with those attributes with which it is now invested by the restriction of cash payments. It is no longer under the necessity of filling the humble character of a cautious mercantile company, calculating the extent to which its dealings may be increased according to the capital it possesses to give them security; nor regulating its proceedings by the apprehension of failure, or the hazard of commercial speculation; but in full possession of an unconditional power of regulating the currency of the kingdom; of increasing its profits at pleasure, by even making such issues of paper as may depreciate that currency; and of preventing or imposing upon the State those evils which must result

result from yielding to or resisting the temptation of gain. This power of issuing the medium of circulation, which, whilst specie was in circulation, was the immediate prerogative of the crown, is now wholly vested in the hands of the Bank Directors. In the official character of these gentlemen, a portion of the former duties of his Majesty's ministers is united with those of a trader, and their conduct must necessarily be at all times wavering between the instinct of mercantile gain, and the duty they owe the public.'

Much at large as the superior cast of these productions has induced us to consider them, still have we been obliged to pass over numerous facts and observations which highly deserve the attention of an enlightened public. The volumes will amply reward the labour of those who will make themselves masters of their contents; and, if our judgment do not mislead us, will intitle their authors to the favourable regards of their country.

Jo.

ART. XI. *The Song of the Sun.* A Poem of the eleventh Century; from the more antient Icelandic Collection called *The Edda.* Imitated by the Rev. James Beresford, M. A., Fellow of Merton College, Oxford. With a Preface, Notes, and short Account of the Author. 8vo. pp. 109. 3s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1805.

IN estimating the merit of the antients and of the moderns, writers are apt to deviate into opposite extremes. The advocate who takes his brief on the side of the former is sure to descant on the importance of unrestrained genius, and to represent them as in a situation peculiarly favourable to bold and original conception. The counsel for the moderns, on the other hand, enlarges on the progressive improvements which science and literature have introduced, on the value of method and arrangement, and on the utility of taste and criticism in correcting the aberrations of a wild fancy, and in giving to the creations of the mind their due proportion and beauty. An enlightened judgment may restrain the flights of the imagination, and the knowlege of rules may damp the ardour of genius: but we are not hence to conclude that those poets are most to be admired who write in the infancy of nations, and that the mis-shapen conceptions of the untutored intellect are preferable to compositions of a more refined period.

An enthusiastic admiration of antiquity will lead to opinions which are at variance with the sober dictates of the understanding. If we admit that the genuine fire of poetry has abated in our island, and that our present bards labour under the disadvantage of the "age too late;"—if we allow that the intellectual revolutions which are produced by the progress of civilization,

lization, the purification of taste, and the establishment of critical laws, are unpropitious to the bold darings of the Muse; —must we be forced to adopt the sentiment of Mr. Beresford, that 'the age of poetry is always to be sought in the *greener* periods of nations?' Is there not a middle course? Must we revert to barbarism, in order to escape the torpid influence of excessive refinement and starch fastidiousness? Is nothing poetical but what is rude, monstrous, and incoherent?—One period in the annals of a state will be more favourable to true poetry than another; and that period is generally to be found in the interval between the first improvements in literature and its extreme civilization. Before Homer, poetry was known among the Greeks: but the Muse did not count her highest honours to be in the crude sallies of the imagination, any more than Architecture would point to the hut or the wigwam as the pride of its art; nor would Painting exhibit the rough traces of the first designers as preferable to the correct and finished drawings of the ablest masters. Some knowlege of art is necessary to produce a whole. Homer has the fire of poetry, but he has method and arrangement also, by means of which the brilliancy of his genius produces its captivating effect.

After all the attempts which have been made to exalt the first specimens of poetry in our northern climes, how miserable are they in point of conception, imagery, and pathos, compared with those which were produced at subsequent periods, when the mind was more strengthened by culture! Though enthusiasts applaud the former, they will remain among that "reading which is never read."

Mr. Beresford introduces to our notice an Icelandic poem, said to have been written in the eleventh century, by high encomiums on the merit of that 'invention which luxuriates in a new creation,' and of 'the happy audacity of Genius;' and we were led by his well-written introduction to expect from "the Song of the Sun" all that could charm the fancy, enrapture the mind, and impress the heart. We were prepared to meet with something after the perusal of which all modern verse would seem "flat, stale, and unprofitable," and even the Muse of Shakespeare or Milton would scarcely be tolerated. What, then, was our astonishment, when we found in this *sublime* poem little more than some crude notions of Heaven and Hell, wound up by the following stanza:

'Father Omnipotent! Puissant Son!
All Holy Spirit!—hear thy servant pray!
To thee I pray, who gavest man to be,
Take us—O take from Miseries all away!'

This,

This, in plain prose, is the invocation of our Litany, "O ever blessed and glorious Trinity, three persons and one God, have mercy upon us, miserable sinners."

According to the Memoir prefixed to this poem, Sæmundar, author or compiler of the most antient Edda, from which the Song of the Sun is taken, was born in the southern quarter of Iceland, about the year 1054: left his country when a boy for the purpose of travelling in quest of information and learning; was discovered by St. Jonas, Bishop of Hola in Iceland, as he was on his journey to Rome; and was induced to accompany him in his tour, and to return with this prelate to his own country, in A. D. 1076. Hence it is probable that the prominent ideas of Sæmundar, in his "Song of the Sun," were not the fruit of 'invention which luxuriates in a new creation,' but were little more than the fancies which he had collected from the Italian priests: who, perhaps, suggested to Dante, in a subsequent period, the absurdities of his Inferno and Paradiso.

As a curiosity, this poem may be intitled to some attention: but it is usheted in with too much parade; and its editor and translator appreciates it far beyond its intrinsic value. Its plan is given in a few words:

'The Author assumes the character of a Father, who, after his death, returns to Earth, for the purpose of delivering admonitions, reciting examples, and revealing the condition of departed Mortals, in the infernal and celestial worlds, to his Son. The above communications are supposed to be made through the medium of dream, or vision.

'With what precise view, the Poet has entitled his performance *The Solar Song*, or *Song of the Sun*, it is not very easy to determine. Among the reasons alleged by the Editor, or Annotators, the most probable appears to be the frequently recurring mention of that Luminary, in the course of the Poem; but, in the Translator's opinion, the true foundation of the title is to be found in the second line of the 78th stanza.'

We should rather conclude that it was generally intitled *Sólar-lióð, solaris oda*, or Song of the Sun, from the 81st and 83d stanzas, in which places it is expressly called the Solar Song.

We copy a few stanzas, to enable our readers to judge how far our opinion of this composition is justified by the poem itself:

'There, men all haggled o'er, in troops I saw,
Pacing where hot-red embers pav'd the road:
No visage there, but show'd, as I beheld,
Painted deplorably with smoking blood!

'There

'There saw I numbers, on the sands outcast;
All, from the Sacred Supper, once, debarr'd:—
O'er every head, a star profane there hung,
Whence rays of direst emanation glar'd!

'Those men I saw, who, at another's lot,
With envious hate had teem'd, and fest'ring spleen:—
On ev'ry breast, in characters of blood
Publish'd unsparingly, their crime was seen.

'There, multitudes I saw—unjoyous Souls!—
All wand'ring wide in ever devious maze:—
Such meed hath purchas'd ev'ry child of man,
Bewilder'd in the world's unrighteous ways.

'Those men I saw, whose hands, by daily fraud,
Another's heap had foully touch'd away:—
In throngs, to Fegiarns' Hall they mov'd along,
And loads of lead groan'd under, night and day.

'Those men I saw, that oft had, in the World,—
A brother man disseiz'd of life, and store:—
On these Hell's Dragons, venomous and strong,
Pounc'd—and, with ravening snatch, their breasts ran o'er!

'Those, too I saw, who shunn'd at holy times,
To lift their hands in pray'r:—but lo! at last,
Those rebel-hands, by cruel nails fix'd down,
To burning rocks were held for ever fast!

'Those men I saw, whose hearts had entertain'd
Untameable conceit and scornful pride:—
Now, flames, in bitter mockery they bore,
Around the gorgeous vestment blazing wide.

'Those men I saw, whose work it was to spread,
Against another's fame, injurious lies:—
Ravens of Hell, with ever-furious beak,
Were, from the sockets tearing out their eyes!—

'But all those horrors which the Damn'd endure
In various punishment, thou cans't not know;
Sweet sins to bitter penance go away:—
Still in the rear of pleasure, follows woe.'

Though we cannot extol the sublimity of Sæmundar's poetry, we very readily admit that it appears to advantage when contrasted with those later performances of the Northern Muse to which Mr. Beresford adverts; and the conceits and obscurity of which he very judiciously exposes. As this subject cannot be better treated than it is by Mr. B. in his preface, we shall avail ourselves of his representation:

'The most striking feature, to a modern eye, of the less ancient songs of the North, of such, I mean, as were composed by those Scalds

Scalds who had emigrated from Iceland, in search of patronage at the courts of other countries, and whose genius degenerated, together with their native dignity of spirit, is *obscurity*. Finding that the few poetical images which are supplied by a savage life were so entirely exhausted by their predecessors that no room was left for invention, they were tempted to condescend to such mechanical tricks as will be presently shewn to my readers. The obscurity above-mentioned is stated by the learned in the Northern languages to have been sometimes voluntary, and sometimes necessitated. Whenever the obscurity was *wilful*, we are desired to believe that it was a stratagem of the poet, whereby to entrap the reverence of the unlettered, whose admiration was caught through the medium of their ignorance: *omne ignotum pro mirabili* seems to have been, in all latitudes, the motto of the vulgar. The *necessary* obscurity, which may, in some sort, be considered as idiomatic, and which has been unconsciously much assisted by the heedlessness, or stupidity, of transcribers, is twofold. In one way, it arose from the unexampled variety of synonyms, both direct, and circuitous, for which all the Northern languages are remarked. In the other way, it happened thus:—a word had, in many instances, the same sound and even the same letters, with wholly different meanings. These separate instruments of confusion, spontaneously offered by the bountiful Genius of the language, were, sometimes, in skilful hands, combined into a double engine, of prodigious execution. Thus, the word *hof*, signifying a *horse's hoof*, denotes likewise, both decency, and understanding: to express, then, either of these latter ideas, the wily poet would use—not the word *hof* itself, which was common to the three senses, and which *might* therefore, have been taken in the right—but, (with a stroke of ambiguity which would have done honour to the Sphinx,) some one (or more) of the numerous paraphrastical appellations of a horse's hoof, which, even if his honest reader had heard it before, he might, happily have chanced not to comprehend: or, though comprehending it, not to apply:—and thus was the poor wonderer, already half blind by nature, made double sure by being directed out of his way!—We see then, that if, in some instances, the bard was compelled to employ a circuitous synonym by the mere want of a simple term; in many more, he would use the former, in cold blood, and with a double plot of deception in his head, where the latter was to have been, as easily, had. I cannot resist the temptation of producing another very curious specimen, at more length, of this coincidence of necessity and inclination in the great business of confounding the reader: I find both instances in the "Letters on Iceland," written by Dr. Uno Von Troil, the Swedish traveller. The following is a sample of what an Icelandic Writer on the art of poetry, in his chapter of "fignres," might, probably, have called the *simple obscure*, as opposed to the *compound*, which I have just illustrated from the instance of the horse's hoof. I will first exhibit the original passage, as taken from an Icelandic love-song—in which, by the way, it is stated that there occur no less than 147 designatións of the single creature called *woman*—Varium et mutabile semper!

'Heigni eg hamri kringdan
Hang a riupu tangar
Grymnis sylgs a galga
Gynnung bruar linna.'

'The translation of this passage, (for the *meaning*, be it observed, is at two removes from the original,) is as follows:—"I hang the round, beaten, gaping snake on the end of the bridge of the mountain-bird, at the gallows of Odin's shield." For the solution of this serious riddle, the distracted reader is to learn that the round, gaping, beaten snake, is a *ring;* a snake with his tail received into his *gaping* mouth, representing a *circle;* and the metal of which the ring is formed having, of course, been *beaten* into rotundity. The bridge of the mountain-bird, or falcon, is *the hand*; that is, the part on which the bird is received by the falconer; and the *end* of that bridge is the finger. The gallows of Odin's shield is *the arm*, i. e. the limb on which the shield is hung. The thought, then, when stripped naked from the cumbrous disguise in which it has been so carefully muffled by its parent, is found to be, really, no bigger, nor more beautiful, than this:— *I put a ring on my finger!*'

Certainly the *Solar Liod* must be luminous when brought in contrast with compositions in which hieroglyphics are forced into a monstrous union with poetry, and fancy only exerts herself to produce deformed ænigmas. The Song of Sæmundar is "the light of the Sun when he shines in his strength," compared with such trash: but if this be the best specimen of Hyperborean poetry, we surely have reason to congratulate ourselves that we are not left to form our taste on such models.

Moy.

ART. XII. *War in Disguise:* or the Frauds of the Neutral Flags. 8vo. pp. 215. 4s. 6d. Hatchard. 1805.

WE are sorry that this pamphlet, which is of high political moment, and which is written with corresponding ability, has been mislaid on our table till so late a period of the present month, that we are compelled to take rather a hasty notice of it. Yet we are so unwilling to delay to another number our endeavours to attract attention to its contents, that we shall make the best use in our power of our remaining time and space.

The writer's manner is such as impresses his reader with the idea that he is master of his subject, that he has well ascertained his facts, and that he has matured his reflections with care. If he be founded in his allegations, and warranted in his conclusions, a system is not only forming, but has reached its consummation, which is much more dangerous to the vital interests of Great Britain, than any effort which she has to

fear from the enmity, the activity, and the power of Bonaparte.

Many of our readers may have imagined that the plantations of our enemies have for some time been lying fallow; that their colonial warehouses groan with produce, which the dread of capture confines within them; or that, when committed to the ocean, it has enriched British adventurers, and increased the British revenue; and that our foes have partaken sparingly of West India commodities, excepting such as we allowed them, and as passed through our hands. What, then, will be their surprize, when they learn from this apparently well informed author, that the hostile colonies were never more flourishing; that their produce never flowed to the parent states in greater abundance; that it never travelled in greater security; that it is conveyed at a considerably cheaper rate than the equidistant and similar commodities of Great Britain; and that it swells their revenue, animates their manufactures, and feeds their commerce with other powers, as in times of the most profound peace. We are here told, also, that a description of subjects of the British crown ensures the arrival of the precious articles of hostile colonies in the several ports of the enemy at a less premium than they will guarantee the transport of the produce of our islands into our own harbours; and that these persons are men of high name and character, who affect prominent patriotism.

These commercial phænomena appear to owe their existence and progress to recent partial surrenders of our maritime rights, which the clamours and threats of neutrals extorted from us; they are here indeed traced to our departure from those principles which, in past wars, we made the guides of our conduct towards states who were at peace:

'In the war of 1756, France, hard pressed by our maritime superiority, and unable to send the requisite supplies to her West India islands, or to bring their produce to the European market under her own mercantile flag, relaxed her colonial monopoly, and admitted neutral vessels, under certain restrictions, to carry the produce of those islands to French, or foreign ports in Europe.—During the whole of that war, the prize courts of Great Britain, regarding this new trade as unwarranted by the rights of neutrality, condemned such vessels as were captured while engaged in it, together with their cargoes; however clearly the property of both might appear to be in those neutral merchants, on whose behalf they were claimed.

'As these vessels were admitted to a trade, in which, prior to the war, French bottoms only could be employed, they were considered as made French by adoption: but the substantial principle of the rule of judgment was this, "that a neutral has no right to deliver a belligerent from the pressure of his enemy's hostilities, by trading with his

his colonies in time of war, in a way that was prohibited in time of peace." This was the rule of the war 1756.'

Conformably to this principle, the royal instruction of 1793 to commanders of ships of war and of privateers was issued, and ran thus; "to stop and detain for lawful adjudication, all vessels laden with goods, the produce of any French colony, or carrying provisions or other supplies for the use of any such colony."

Of the rule of the war of 1756, whenever we have been called to consider it, we have, on the ground of its fairness, of its rendering the pressure of war mutual, and of its tendency to shorten its continuance, uniformly expressed our approbation. We gave very particular attention to the objections that were urged against it in the course of the last war, and we found them to be all unsubstantial. Yet the selfish cries on this subject, which succeeded to the alarms for religion, morality, and civil society, induced the British cabinet to relax from the strictness of this not less fair than safe principle. The substitute for it, which is now in operation, is to be found in the instruction of the 24th of June 1803, directed to the commanders of His Majesty's ships of war and privateers; which suffers neutrals to trade with the colonies of our enemy, directly to or from the ports of their own respective countries, but not directly to or from any other part of the world.

This relaxation covered *bona fide* dealings between the neutral and the hostile settlement, completely relieved the colony, in fact ameliorated its situation by allowing it a free trade in the room of a monopoly, and not only dissipated the interest which it has in peace, but gave it a contrary bias. It is therefore in itself highly injurious: but this forms a very small part of the grievance arising from the concession, which has opened the door to a series of impositions unparallelled in the annals of fraud. It is under the protection of this licence that a great proportion of the bullion of South America, and that the whole of its less valuable produce, find their way into the ports of the Metropole; and by the same channel the precious commodities of the Eastern and Western dominions of our several enemies reach in perfect safety their several ports. The magic consists in the circuity of the voyage. An American ship takes in a lading at Martinique or Cuba, calls at an American port, gets fresh papers, changes perhaps her captain and crew, and continues her voyage to the mother country of the colony. Here she receives a lading of such articles as the colony wants: but, as she must not proceed thither directly, she first visits some port of the United States, where she is furnished with documents as for a new voyage, and she is then enabled to

reach the colony again. Thus, by these breaks in the homeward and outward voyages, intercourse is carried on between France, Spain, and Holland; and their several colonies are supplied as regularly as and more safely and cheaply than ours by similar intercourse with Great Britain. A late detection has rendered it necessary, in the neutral harbour, to adopt some farther ceremonials, (such as making a nominal transfer of the goods, and obtaining certain certificates,) in the process of the neutralization of the hostile commodities. It is now requisite to give the goods a sort of airing, at the middle place, which completely purifies them, takes away all the hostile properties, and the brave cruizer who runs every risk to serve his country dares not lay his finger on them. This operation of neutralizing (rare invention of modern chicanery!) is done at so low a rate as from two to one per cent. Moreover, as we before stated, there are philanthropists in the British metropolis who ensure the circuitous voyage and even the neutralizing process from risk; and these insurers are not suspected persons, but the institutors and conductors of patriotic funds! We fear, indeed, that the contributions, which they levy from the public, ill compensate for the loss of those harvests which our brave defenders would reap, were it not for the guarantee which they help to give to the goods of our enemy. It is here asserted that the British underwriters engage, sometimes by word of mouth, but oftener lately in writing, to call for no proofs of neutrality in case any litigation should arise between them and the assured. Can they be ignorant that they are protecting the intercourse between the enemy and his colonies; can they be unacquainted with the mischiefs which this occasions to their country; can they be unmindful of its tendency to prolong warfare? The author is willing, as every candid man must be, to think that they have given little consideration to the results of their conduct: but surely, now that they are called to reflect on them, they will abandon the illicit dealing, and, by way of atonement for their past indiscretion, will assist the public in detecting those frauds which disgrace the governments that tolerate them, and which might effect the ruin of Great Britain. It is with great propriety that the author exhorts our rulers to present strong remonstrances against these enormous abuses of neutrality, and against the immoral and dishonourable practices by which they are accomplished: but can we wonder that the covetousness of neutrals should involve them in this delinquency, when we find British subjects so ready to share in it with them? We will hope that this opprobium to nations, that this stain on British patriotism, will not long be suffered to continue.

It now frequently happens that Americans, of slender or no visible property, have cargoes of immense value from the colonies of the enemy consigned to them, without their being able to point out any markets for which they design them. Vessels richly laden move to and from the hostile settlements in the east and west, all stated to belong to Americans, Prussians, or Danes, most of whom are persons of no consideration, and altogether unknown until the present war; and not a ship, nor an article in it, that traverses the ocean, has an avowed French, or Spanish, or Dutch owner! Ludicrous instances of this kind are mentioned by the author. A man, who at the beginning of the war was a petty shoemaker in a small town of East Friesland, had at one time a hundred and fifty vessels navigating as his property, under Prussian colours; and merchants, who maintain not a single clerk, have come forwards as claimants of numerous cargoes, each of them worth many thousand pounds, and all destined professedly for precarious markets. The cargoes of five East Indiamen, composed of the rich exports of Batavia, were cotemporary purchases of a single house at Providence in Rhode Island! Vessels, which have cleared from the ports of North America, bring back in abundance the dollars and gold ingots of Vera Cruz and la Plata. One neutral house has contracted for all the merchandise of the Dutch East India company at Batavia, amounting in value to not less than one million seven hundred thousand pounds sterling! It is obvious that all these purchases are only ostensible, and that the pretended consignor is merely a factor; or, adverting to his principal function in this new species of commerce, he may be called a *neutralizer*.

Let us take a view of the extensive and alarming effects of these proceedings, which combine insult with fraud:

'France and Holland have totally ceased to trade with their own flags, to or from the ports of any of their colonies; and have assigned the whole of these branches of their commerce to the merchants of neutral states. Spain has nearly made an entire transfer of all her trade with her colonies on the Atlantic. Even her most valuable exports have been largely entrusted to the neutral flag at Vera Cruz, Carthagena, la Plata, and other ports; while the more important commerce of the Havannah and Cuba in general has known no other protection. Of the French colonies in the Antilles, of Cayenne, Dutch Guiana, of the Isles of France and Bourbon, of Batavia, Manilla, and the other hostile Aisatic settlements, neutrals have been their only carriers; even the gum trade of Senegal has run in the same channel. *Not a single merchant ship under a flag inimical to Great Britain now crosses the equator, or traverses the Atlantic Ocean.* With the exception only of a very small portion of the coasting trade of our enemies, not

a mercantile sail of any description now enters or clears from their ports in any part of the globe, but under neutral colours.

'The mercantile registers at Lloyd's announce every week, and almost every day, numerous arrivals of ships in the ports of Holland and France; and it is notorious, that they are freighted for the most part with sugar, coffee, and the other rich productions of the French and Spanish West Indies. At Cadiz, at Barcelona, and the other Spanish ports, whether within or without the Mediterranean, neutral vessels are perpetually importing the sugar of the Havannah, the cocoa, indigo, and hides of South America, the dollars and ingots of Mexico and Peru; and returning with European manufactures, chiefly the rivals of our own. East India goods are imported by these commercial auxiliaries into Spain, but still more copiously into Holland and France.

'Nor is it only in their own ports that our enemies receive the exports of America and of Asia, in contempt of our maritime efforts.—Hamburgh, Altona, Embden, Gottenburgh, Copenhagen, and Lisbon, and various other neutral markets, are supplied, and even glutted with the produce of the West Indies, and the fabrics of the East, brought from the prosperous colonies of powers hostile to this country. By the rivers and canals of Germany and Flanders they are floated into the warehouses of our enemies, or circulated for the supply of their customers in neutral countries. They supplant, or rival the British planter and merchant throughout the Continent of Europe, and on the shores of the Mediterranean. They supplant even the manufacturers of Birmingham, Manchester, and Yorkshire; for the looms and forges of Germany are put in action by the colonial produce of our enemies, and are rivalling us by the ample supplies they send under the neutral flag to every part of the New World.

'Antwerp is rapidly thriving under the fostering care of Bonaparte. The neutral flags operate most favourably for the rising hopes of the Scheldt. Its port has become a favourite haunt for the American West Indiamen, and profits in various ways by the sale of their cargoes.'

Having enumerated farther particulars of this enormous traffic, the author thus concludes his account of it:

'In short, all the hostile colonies, whether Spanish, French, or Dutch, derive from the enmity of Great Britain, their antient scourge and terror, not inconvenience but advantage: far from being impoverished or distressed by our hostilities as formerly, they find in war the best sources of supply, and new means of agricultural as well as commercial prosperity.'

It is observed by the author 'that our underwriters consent to stand between the hostilities of their country and the commerce of her disguised enemies, by giving them an honorary guarantee against the perils of capture and discovery.' 'For six per cent.' he tells us, 'the British underwriter will warrant Spanish property, knowing it to be such, from the Havannah to Spain by way of America; though he receives what is equal

to

to seven on British property of the same description, carried with convoy, and in far better bottoms, from Jamaica to London.' He farther adds; 'The proportion of this premium which may be reckoned as the price of the secret undertaking, is, I understand, one per cent.:—it is striking to reflect how small an additional premium is enough to compensate the insurer for the risk of the detection of hostile property under the neutral cover, in this commodious new invented mode of the colonial trade.' He very properly suggests that these engagements not to inquire into the neutrality of the property, 'being void in law, ought to be prohibited under severe penalties, as well on the broker who negotiates, as on the underwriter who subscribes them.'

West India produce is conveyed from the colonies of our enemies, into the mother country, at the rate of four or five per cent. cheaper than that at which Britain is able to bring home her own; *it also sells clear of duties at a lower price in their ports than in ours.*

The author shews that our enemies effectually secure the duties under the present mode of managing their colonial traffic. Without maintaining squadrons to defend their colonial ports, without sending detachments on the convoy service, without having occasion to disperse their fleets,—by the aid of the neutrals, and the gentlemen at Lloyd's, our enemies are here said to carry on their colonial concerns to as much advantage as Great Britain, (if not more,) who bears enormous expence in supporting squadrons to protect her colonies, to act as convoys, and to secure her pre-eminence at sea.

This neutral navigation, it is remarked, enables Bonaparte to render his marine wholly military, and to employ all his seamen in ships of war: a fact which appears in the continually increasing number of the enemy's privateers, which already far exceed those of any former period. It is moreover stated that this new practice has occasioned desertion among our seamen, who have in great numbers entered into the American service; and that it takes away the strongest stimulus for the manning of our navy, namely the prospect of prizes:

'Our sailors (says the author,) see the same valuable cargoes passing continually under their stern, which used formerly to make the fortunes of the captors; but the ensigns of neutrality now wave over them all, and prohibit a seizure: if a hostile island is taken, the neutral flag alone is hoisted in its harbour, there is no property afloat but what is neutral. The languid service of the West Indies is no longer enlivened by the prospect of capture; our brave defenders meet no enemy worthy of their valour; their only foes are the fever and the neutral flag: nearer home their situation is no less singular or discouraging. The Mediterranean, the Bay of Biscay, the Channel,

the German Ocean, are covered with the exports of Spain, Holland, and France, and their colonies, and with shipping bound to their ports; but where are the prizes of war? Our cruizers search for them in vain, even on the hostile coasts; even there vessels, impudently called neutral, conduct, for the most part, the coasting trade.'

The author next enters into a very curious detail of the arts used, and the methods taken, to oblige the courts to decide against the captors, where no doubt is entertained of the captures being lawful prizes: but on this point we have not room to enlarge.

It is impossible, the writer contends, that matters should long remain in their present state. Shall we copy the example of our enemies, and abandon the carrying trade to neutrals; or enter into an agreement with our foes not to extend hostility to traffic; or make peace with Bonaparte? The first measure, he judges, we are by no means likely to adopt; to the second, he thinks that our great enemy would not give his consent; and he is of opinion that we cannot ever live in real amity with the ruler of France. If he should make a treaty with us, 'he will never make peace while our free constitution exists, and while our press remains unshackled.' We have, then, according to the author, no alternative to which we can recur, but 'the rule of the war of 1756.' He is not an advocate for enforcing this rule in its utmost rigour: but he thinks that it safely may and that it ought to be in a degree qualified. He is disposed 'to allow the Americans to import their native provisions and lumber in their own vessels, into the hostile colonies, and to receive in return those inferior articles of colonial produce, rum, taffia, and molasses;' and he adds 'that we might permit all neutral nations to hold an intercourse of the same species, and subject to similar restrictions with the colonies of Spain and Holland.' Our space will not allow us to state the satisfactory considerations on which he grounds this qualification. He shews it to be highly improbable that our exercise of our maritime rights, as a belligerent, would occasion neutral nations to join in the war against us: but were this the sad result, he maintains that it would be infinitely preferable to that of sitting down quietly under the impositions that are practised on us.

We can now only conclude by recommending this very able pamphlet to our readers, as deserving serious attention from all persons who wish to be acquainted with the real situation of their country, and who have its welfare at heart.

Jo.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1805.

HISTORY, BIOGRAPHY, &c.

Art. 13. *The History of the Honourable Artillery Company, of the City of London*, from its earliest Annals to the Peace of 1802. By Anthony Highmore, Solicitor. Member of the South East Division of the Company. 8vo. 12s. 6d. Boards. White.

THIS author is desirous to trace a connection between the Artillery Company as now constituted, and those armed associations which belonged to times when the military and civil occupations were more blended than they are at present. The spirit which excited them, and the purposes for which the one and the other were formed, were (we doubt not) very much the same: but, as to any farther relation between them, we own that we are not able to discover it. In the Saxon times, the citizens were probably obliged in virtue of their tenure to exercise arms, and this was unquestionably the case under the Conqueror. In the reign of King Stephen, the city force was so considerable as to amount to 20,000 horse, and 60,000 foot; and it appears that arms were very much in vogue among the citizens in the time of Henry III.

Of the subsequent progress of this spirit, until the period of the incorporation of the present Company, Mr. Highmore gives this summary account.

'The use of Archery having been much discontinued, King Edward III. in the year 1365, sent a letter to the sheriffs of London, recommending to them to revive the practice, and commanding that "in places as well within the liberties as without, they should cause proclamation to be made, that every one of the said city, strong in body, at leisure times or holidays, use in their recreation bows and arrows, or pelets or bolts, and learn and exercise the art of shooting," &c.

'The practice of Archery was thus recovered from its decline, and continued for many years to form a part, not only of the elegant pastime of the gentleman, but also of the national defence; for at the close of the reign of Henry VII., anno 1497, it had acquired so high an estimation, in the metropolis, that all the gardens which had continued (says Hollingshed, Vol. III. 785.) "time out of mind without Moorgate, were destroyed, and of them was made a plaine field for archers to shoot in." Stowe and Chamberlain corroborate this circumstance, and speak of them as the gardens and orchards about Chiswell Street and Finsbury.

'This measure arose from the alarm which had spread throughout the country, and particularly in the metropolis, from a revolt which had recently broke out in Cornwall, and threatened London with an immediate and serious attack: the danger suggested the propriety of establishing a more regular body of defence for the city; and of appropriating some beautiful gardens in the manor of Finsbury, to the north of Chiswell Street, for a walled inclosure for the city archers and trained bands, which was then denominated the Artillery ground.

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'The name of the manor of Finsbury has had various derivations, but what may seem most probable to have been correct, corresponds with the account which the writers on that part of the metropolis are agreed in; that the land there being fenny and swampy, had a running water passing through it to the city, and that therefore *Fin* is a corruption of *Fensbury*, agreeing with *Moor* or *Mere* land, which was granted by William the Conqueror to the church of St. Martin's Le Grand.

'Henry VIII. who had from early life practised the use of all the manly and athletic exercises, particularly that of the Bow, found, upon his accession in 1509, the citizens of London well disposed towards the encouragement and discipline of one of his favourite pursuits; and as its use was of far more importance to his government than to his amusement, he gave them every sanction which could be derived from his presence and practice.

'They extended their exercises over the fields near Islington, Hoxton, and Shoreditch, and were accustomed to fix buts and targets there to shoot at: but as the inhabitants of those villages increased in number, they inclosed their grounds, which had been common field, and thereby prevented the practice of archery; this produced a serious contest, amounting, according to Grafton's Chronicle, to an insurrection, in 5 Henry VIII. anno 1514, in which the citizens practising archery, tenacious of what they had long enjoyed as a right, assembled and destroyed all the fences.

'It was natural to suppose that Henry would not overlook a passion among his citizens of London, which he might be enabled to convert to very useful purposes; he therefore, in the 28th year of his reign, anno 1537, when he had seen them matured in the practice, and well disciplined in the service, granted them a patent of incorporation.'

The charter invests the Artillery Company with the usual corporate rights; gives them the power of chusing their own officers and members; exempts them from the operation of certain sumptuary laws then in being, from serving on juries, and from legal process in the case of unavoidable accidents occasioned by their exercises: the Company is endowed with every reasonable privilege; and the whole is drawn up in a style which shews the predilection of the monarch for the institution. The Company has ever since been protected and countenanced by the sovereigns of this realm; and the author is of opinion that this patronage has had the best effect on the spirit and disposition of the metropolis.

This corps appears, on most occasions, either to have given the tone to or to have shared in the prevailing temper of the city of London; it sided with Parliament in the opposition which was so honourable in its commencement, but so unfortunate in the result, made by that body to the inroads committed by Charles I. on the rights and liberties of his subjects; it readily shook off its allegiance to its Captain-General James II.; was uniformly loyal to King William; and has ever distinguished itself by its attachment to the Protestant succession. It temporized under Charles and James; it seems to have been but for a short period on the popular side in the present

sent reign; and its principal members at this moment have more the reputation of dutiful courtiers than of sturdy citizens.

Exclusive of the facts borrowed from the history of the country, and interwoven with this narrative, the present volume would have been comprized within very moderate limits: for we learn that, during the dissensions between Charles I. and his Parliament, the records of the Company were destroyed; and that the first court-book now existing is not of an earlier date than 1656. **Jo.**

Art. 14. *The Historie and Life of King James the Sext.* Written towards the latter Part of the Sixteenth Century. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We are informed, in the preface to this volume, that in the Memoirs of the Affairs of Scotland by David Crawfurd, which were published in 1706, references occur to a MS., in support of certain positions, which includes nothing that in the least countenances them. The contents of that MS. constitute the present volume. The editor states that

'The discovery of it affords a complete detection of the earliest, if not the most impudent literary forgery ever practised in Scotland. Every circumstance in the MS, unfavourable either to Mary or to Bothwell, or favourable to their adversaries, is carefully suppressed: every vague allegation in Camden, Spottiswood, Melvill, and others, or in the State Papers which Crawfurd had transcribed from the Cotton MS. is inserted in the Memoirs; and these writers are quoted on the margin as collateral authorities, confirming the evidence of some unknown contemporary. Fictions, invented by Crawfurd himself, are profusely intermixed; and even the ill-digested form of the genuine narrative is a pretext for the transposition and alteration of facts. The historiographer for Scotland, having thus, on the narrow basis of the original MS., constructed spurious memoirs of his own, "declares solemnly that he has not wrested any of the words, to add to one man's credit, or to impair the honesty of another; that he has neither heightened nor diminished any particular character or action: but that he has kept as close as possible to the meaning and sense of his author;" and even his title-page professes that the work is "faithfully published from an authentic manuscript." The memoirs have been quoted as genuine by Hume and Robertson: and their authority has been re-echoed by disputants as a full confirmation of the most absolute fictions. Nor is it possible to acquit Goodall of connivance at the fraud: he had collated the memoirs with two copies of the original MS., and was conscious of the imposture, which, in the preface to the second edition, he endeavours partly to vindicate, and partly to conceal.'—

'The authorities fabricated by Hector Boethius, Chalmers of Ormond, and Dempster, are sufficiently known: but Crawfurd, perhaps, was the first Scotchman who published his own compositions as the genuine productions of a former age. The present example, however, ought to convince those who persist in the practice of literary forgery, that the most successful fabrication can give them no assurance whatsoever of impunity, and that no length of time can secure them from detection.'

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The work itself inspires an interest which a contemporaneous record hardly ever fails to create; it carries us back to the very period, we enter into its feelings, and become acquainted with its prejudices and its habits of thinking; an effect which is not diminished, but heightened, by the antiquated dialect and obsolete orthography of the performance. We shall insert one or two of those passages which the editor regards as conclusive against the favourers of the abandoned and unfortunate Queen.

After having described the baptism of James, afterward King of England, the author thus proceeds:

'Nather did King Henrie cum thair, albeit he was in Striviling all that quhyll, nather was he permittit or requyrit to cum oppinly: and thairfore he addrest himselfe to Glasgow, quhair he became extreme seik, and his haill bodye brak out in euill fauourit pustullis, be the force of young age that pottentlye expellit the poyson quhilk was given him to haist the end of his dayes. Sa that the Queene, whither it was for pittie or hypocrisie (I will not dispute) tuik iorney toward him to Glasgow, & remaint by him by the space of ten dayes, & causit him to be transportit to Edinburgh, quhair he was placit in a desert ludging near the wall & faulxburg of the town, callit the kirk of feild, prepairit for a wicked intent, as the malicious actors performit it with their pestilent handis, perceiving that the poysoun quhilk they hade given him did tak na effect, devysit this uther purpose. To lay trains of gwn powder, about and within the wallis of the hous in great quantity. Bot first they come in be slight of false keyis quietlie to the King's chalmer, quhair he was reposing in bed, & his servand sleeping nar by. First they stranglit the King, & nixt his servand. They kaist thair dead bodies out in a desert zaird by a back dore, quhilk they had prepared before, fitt for the purpose, and then kendlit thair traine of gwn powder quhilk inflamit the timber of the haill hous in sic sort, and troublit sa the wallis thairof, that gret stanes, of the lenth of ten fute, and of breid five fute, were fund distant from that hous be the space of a quarter of a myil This was devysit to deceaue the people, to make them belieue that the hous & bodies was expellit & demolisht be the chance of suddaine fire, & na uther wayes: Bot Bothwell and his men were sein neare hand by, to the end the wicket purpose should not faill to tak effect, as by progres of this historie shall the better be knowin.'—

'Then Bothwell, thinking thair was na contrauersie againes him in Scotland, conveint the number of aucht hundreche horsemen, & as the Queene was cumand from the castell of Striviling, to have returnit to Edinburgh, he met hir in the hie way, & convoyit hir perforce (as appeirit) to the castell of Dunbarr, to the end he might enioy hir as his laufull spous; & in the meane tyme causit devorcement to be led & separation proceed betuixt him & his awin marriet lawful wyfe, the Ladie Jeane Gordown, than sister to George Earl of Huntlye. The freindlie liufe was so heighlie contractit betuix this great princes toward hir enorme subiect, that thair was no end thairof; for it was constantly estimit be all man, that ather of them loued uther carnally Sa that shoe sufferit hirselff patiently to be led quhair the lover list, and all the way nather maid obstacle, impediment,

ment, clamor, or resistance, as in sic accidentis uses to be, or that shoe might haue done be hir princely auctoritie, being accompanyit with the noble Earle of Huntlie, & Secretar Maitland of Lethington. They had scarcely remaint be the space of ten dayes in the castell of Dumbarr, & na great distance being betwix the Queenis chalmer and Bothwellis, quhen they thoght expedient to cum to Edinburgh castell, and, be the way, to shaw hirselff to the people that Bothwell was ready to put hir to libertie againe, according to the dewtie of ane obedient subiect. Bot at the streit entrie of the toun that leadis to the Castell, he maid semblance to lead her brydle; and sensibill people interpret the same as though he convoyit hir Maiestie as his captive to a castell, quhairin a substitute of his was, callit Sr James Balfour. Immediatelie thairafter, they were proclamit in several kirkis to be mariet, and a certane day prefixt to that purpose. And to the effect shoe should not seeme to receave to hir husband a man that was not in the rowme of a prince, he was creat Duce of Orknay and Zetland with great magnificence, & upoun the 15 of Maij were mariet togidder. The same day was a pamphlet affixt upoun the palice port,

Mense malas Maio nubere vulgus ait.'

Did the general voice of history on these points need any farther confirmation, it must be owned that we have a testimony here of no small weight to corroborate it. The above statement of the guilt of Mary leaves no doubt as to the opinion of this cotemporary author; who, there is reason to presume, was of the same religion with his Royal Mistress, attached to her cause, and hostile to that of her enemies.—If this writer bears hard on the motives of the Queen's opponents, he never appears to withhold or misrepresent facts, nor in any way to violate historic truth; he takes no pains to conceal his bias, but we are persuaded that it never led him wilfully to falsify his narrative; he cherished his prejudices, but he seems to have been sensible of the obligations imposed on an historian to adhere to truth. Jo.

Art. 15. *The Life of the much lamented Vice Admiral Lord Viscount Nelson*, K.B., &c. 8vo. 1s. Printed at Manchester. Bickerstaff, London.

A tolerably satisfactory sketch of the principal features in the life and death of this really great warrior; though, as the writer acknowleges, it has been 'hastily conceived, hastily written, and hastily printed, to meet the patriotic feelings of the day.' A portrait is prefixed. G.2.

MEDICAL.

Art. 16. *Tracts and Observations on the salutary Treatment of Infants, not strictly Medical;* comprehending a new System in Discipline and Management, during the Period of infantile Life, &c. &c. By Robert Bath, King Street, Portman Square. 8vo. pp. 164. 5s. Boards. Cawthorn. 1805.

The title of this work informs us that its contents are principally intended for the use of mothers; a circumstance which it is necessary to

to bear in mind during our examination of its merits. A performance which is destined for popular use should be perspicuous in its plan and arrangement; the principles which it lays down should be such as are easily understood, and generally recognized; and its style should be simple and unaffected. We shall afford our readers an opportunity of judging how far these characters are applicable to the present volume. It commences with an address to mothers, in which, after having stated that females, from their natural constitution, are more easily impressed with tender feelings than males, the author attempts to prove that they are fully competent to the acquisition of all the knowlege which is necessary for the education and nurture of their offspring. He even asserts that they are better suited to the attainment of this object than the other sex; and he maintains that, in almost every instance, the female capacity is equal if not superior to the male. His opinion is supported and illustrated in the latter part of his address; and our readers may form some idea of the style of this performance from one passage:

'I have endeavoured to exhibit what I have mostly found, in the experience of professional life of long continuance, that in the great number of instances, indeed in all, except those few, where organic nature is bad, or defectively formed—and such deviations are few—that the female parent is by far the best endowed with faculties, from observance and attendance, to ascertain the want and appoint the treatment, both regiminal and disciplinary, and with the reference to, and assistance of, medical minds, to very correct and judicious appointments, from the very valuable observation and experience of such men as have delight and pleasure in communicating the fruits of them; and that they may, like great and accomplished historians and poets, to be ever instanced, travel through the intricacies of life, with other people's minds to guide and enlighten them.'

From the address, we proceed to an introduction; the main design of which is to persuade the author's fair friends to acquire all possible knowlege respecting the diseases and constitutions of their children; certainly a most laudable object, and infinitely preferable to those in which we fear too many mothers spend a large portion of their time. Yet we confess that we still entertain that kind of respect for the masculine gender, that we think that the most learned lady might occasionally be benefited by the advice of a respectable practitioner, even after she may have had her mind illuminated by Mr. Bath's observations.

The points, on which the author principally dwells, *appear to us* to be the importance of evacuating the bowels, the recommendation of warm clothing, (particularly flannel next to the skin,) the disadvantages that ensue from letting children remain too long at the breast, with the benefit derived from using friction of various kinds, frequently washing the skin, and giving a sufficiency of nutritious diet. These, we say, *appear to us* to be the circumstances principally urged; for it is not an easy matter to deduce the author's meaning from beneath the load of words with which it is encumbered. We have given a specimen of his composition, and we have not selected it as being peculiarly

overcharged*: we shall now copy the beginning of his observations, as affording a sample of his philosophy:

'Nothing disposes so much to diminish the difficulties of advancing, in the progress of human attainments, in branches of the higher and more complicated walks of science and knowledge, as the concentrating it, by generic simplification—or, to be excused for using a periphrasis, which is a little debased by frequency, and vulgar expression—to *generalise* and *simplify*: and, it is also as evident, that the more correctly and perfectly we do know, into the less compass, and into the fewer rules, we can reduce its essence and principles: and, to be still more distinct; to every degree of mental comprehension, we can more readily, more easily, and more effectually, be understood; and, in the instance we have now to offer, and submit, what we have to say upon this subject, we hope and presume, the more readily embraced and followed.'

Though the greatest part of the doctrines laid down in this work appear to be altogether common-place, yet occasionally the author attempts originality in his ideas, as well as in his style. He supposes that, when flannel is worn next to the skin, the friction which takes place produces the extrication of the electric fluid; which is dignified by the title of the 5th element, and is conceived to possess some wonderful virtues in the animal economy. The nutritive power of oysters is supposed to depend on their containing a quantity of 'the phosphoric principle;' and sponge, when used for washing the body, is imagined to have some specific virtues, in consequence of its being of an animal nature. These, we apprehend, will be deemed a sufficient specimen of Mr. Bath's speculations; indeed, we beg pardon of our readers for having so long detained them on a mass of "*words, words, words;*"—a mere display of superficialness and affectation. **Bos.**

Art. 17. *A Medical Guide for the Invalid to the principal Watering Places of Great Britain;* containing a View of the Medical Effects of Water. 1. As applied to the Body in its simple State. 2. As exhibited in its impregnated or Mineral Form. 3. As employed in this Form for the Cure of particular Diseases, with their Modes of Treatment, and 4. As assisted in its Effects by the Situation and Climate of the Watering-places resorted to. By William Nisbet, M.D. 12mo. pp. 295. 5s. 6d. Boards. Highley.

This work professes to give a popular view of the effects produced by the different mineral waters that are employed in this country for medicinal purposes: in order to enable every one so far to judge of their nature, as to prevent him from injuring himself by their improper application. To accomplish this object, the author begins by taking a view of water in its simple state, with its effects on the body, either employed as an article of diet, or administered as a remedy for disease; and he next makes some remarks on its external application, in the form of bathing, fomentation, or vapor.

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* At p. 161—163. we observe a single sentence consisting of 35 lines, broken only by a superabundance of commas, and one semicolon! Mr. Bath's readers must at least be free from any defective organization of the lungs.

In

In the second part, the effects of waters impregnated with some foreign ingredients are discussed; with a short account of each of the mineral springs in this country which have become celebrated for their medicinal virtues. They are divided into the acidulous, saline, sulphureous, and chalybeate; a classification which, though not capable of being applied with much accuracy, may be allowed in a popular work like the present. The author gives the following tests, by which the predominant qualities of any mineral water may be detected:

'1. The first division, or acidulous waters, are detected by an infusion of turnsole, which turns the water red, and afterwards, when boiled, returns it to blue, or by paper stained in turnsole, which is reddened when wet, but becomes blue when dry.

'2. Saline waters are discovered by turning syrup of violets green, which thus shews the presence of an alkali, and calcareous earth is detected by a solution of lead in nitrous acid, which the water immediately precipitates, so as to produce a muddiness.

'3. Sulphureous waters are known by turning infusion of turnsole red, and by blackening polished metals.

'4. Chalybeate waters are distinguished by blackening infusion of galls, and the dissolving acid is ascertained by observing whether it produces its effect before or after boiling.'

It must be obvious to every one who has paid any degree of attention to the analysis of mineral waters, that these directions will not bear to be minutely criticized. Many medicinal waters contain more than one class of ingredients; and of those which are the most properly called saline, we believe that the generality would not shew any predominance of alkali. Dr. Nisbet himself informs us that the salts most commonly found in what he calls saline waters are 'the Epsom salt, the marine salt, and calcareous and magnesian muriates.'

Part III. consists of the 'history and treatment of diseases which require the use of mineral waters.' It is remarked that the diseases, to which the use of the mineral waters is applicable, are principally of the chronic kind; and they are arranged under the three heads of nervous complaints, affections of some particular organs, and diseases of the skin, of each of which a short account is given. The observations are such as may, for the most part, be admitted, consisting almost entirely of very obvious and common-place remarks: but, occasionally, the author soars beyond his usual track, and either aims at originality or assumes a more decisive tone. He professes to propose a new method for curing palsy by means of the hot bath; and taking it for granted that absorption is carried on by the skin, he advises that the bath should be medicated. He imagines that the benefit obtained by the employment of the Bath waters in gout arises from their containing azotic gas; and he recommends that an attempt should be made 'to give still greater relief by preferring another mineral, which contains a still greater proportion of this matter, and increasing its temperature to that of the Bath mineral.' Hæmoptysis is supposed always to depend on scrofula, and scrofula is thought to be produced by a deficiency of salt in the fluids.—Although the general tenor of this performance is sufficiently uninteresting, probably our readers will think

think that Dr. Nisbet's original speculations are not the most valuable part of the work. Bos.

Art. 18. *A General Dictionary of Chemistry*, containing the leading Principles of the Science, in regard to Facts, Experiments, and Nomenclature. For the Use of Students. By William Nisbet, M. D. 12mo. pp. 415. 8s. Boards. Highley. 1805.

When we are presented with a duodecimo volume which is intitled 'a general Dictionary of Chemistry,' and which professes to contain 'the general principles of the science, and to enumerate all its leading facts and experiments', we are at first inclined to think that we have met with a great bargain: but there is some danger lest we should be disappointed in such cases, and should find that the article, like Hodge's razors, was made to *sell* and not to be useful. We acknowlege, however, that a duodecimo volume closely printed may contain a great deal of information; and that such a performance as the one now under examination, if the matter be accurate and well selected, may be of some value.

With respect to the accuracy with which the work is executed, we shall present our readers with some remarks on a few pages at the commencement, by which they may judge of the rest. In the article '*Acetic Acid*,' we are informed that Gren and Adet conceive that the acetous and acetic acids differ merely in their degree of concentration, not in the proportion of their principles: but that Chaptal and Dabit have endeavoured to prove that they are essentially different in their constitution. Here the reader is left, without being apprized that more lately Darracq and Proust have supported the opinion of Gren and Adet, by experiments which are generally deemed conclusive.—The acids are divided into mineral, vegetable, and animal, according to the substances from which they are procured. We observe in these classes several inaccuracies; in the first division, the arsenical and other metallic acids are not mentioned; among the vegetable acids, we have pyro-tartarous and pyro-mucous acids inserted, though it is proved that they have no title to the denomination; while the carbonic acid is unaccountably omitted. In the class of animal acids, the saclactic is omitted, while the formic and zoonic are retained, though the last two are found to be only compounds of acetic acid. The author confidently adopts, in its fullest extent, the hypothesis respecting the oxygenation of the system by acids taken into the stomach: but we can neither admit the plausibility of the speculation, nor the force of the facts on which it is founded.—It is also stated in a subsequent article, as if it were a point decidedly proved, that alkalies are compounds of hydrogen and azote.

In speaking of the proportion in which the ingredients of the atmosphere exist, under the head of '*Air*', the author adopts the old idea that oxygen composes 27 parts in 100; while under the article '*Atmosphere*', we are told that the oxygen composes only 22 parts in the 100. We are also informed that the atmosphere has a different proportion of oxygen at different heights above the surface; an assertion which we believe is absolutely contradictory to the most accurate experiments. Lastly, '*Alum*' is said to be the sulphate of argill; and in giving the analysis of this body, no mention is made of the alkali, which es-

sentially enters into its composition.—These errors are certainly not unimportant; and it must very seriously diminish the value of a work in which so little is said, if it be found that this little is not correct.

With regard to the selection of matter, we fear that we cannot say much more in praise than on the score of accuracy; for the objections in point of deficiency are very numerous. Among *many* others that might be specified, the reader will in vain look for *adipocire*, *hydrocarbone*, *olefient gas*, *ochres*, *palladium*, *pewter*, *pumice*, and *oxymuriatic acid*.—After these remarks, our opinion of this volume will be inferred to be unfavorable: but we must add that the account of the metals is, for the most part, fairly executed; and that under the word '*Galvanism*', is contained an amusing sketch of that science. Bos.

Art. 19. *An Account of the Neutral Saline Waters recently discovered at Hampstead*, with Chemical Experiments on their component Parts, Observations on their Medicinal Application and Effects in certain Diseases; and on the different Modes of Bathing, as an Auxiliary to the drinking of Mineral Waters. By Thomas Goodwin, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, in London. 12mo. pp. 118. 3s. 6d. Murray. 1804.

The author of this volume, who appears from some passages in the work to be an apothecary at Hampstead, has undertaken to point out the virtues of a saline spring which has been lately discovered in that village. His motive for this recommendation seems natural; and we could not blame him for endeavouring, by fair arguments, to prove to the public that they may derive as much benefit by placing themselves under his care, at Hampstead, as by taking a longer journey to obtain the same relief elsewhere. He states however that, in publishing this treatise, he was influenced by philanthrophy and benevolence; and that he pursued his object 'at considerable expence, disregarding his own immediate interest, from the desire of being useful to others.'

After some observations on the advantages which may be expected to ensue from the employment of mineral waters, Mr. Goodwin is 'impelled,' as he says, 'by coercive example,' to enter on a description of Hampstead and its environs. Here he throws off the professional air, and assumes the sentimental style. He quotes Armstrong, and talks about 'the elegant master of descriptive imagery, who informed the page with music, sentiment, and thought, and poured the whole luxuriance of nature into his inimitable seasons.' He also ingeniously paraphrases mineral waters, by the style and title of 'aqueous compounds of nature;' and he informs us that the pastures about Hampstead are filled with cattle, 'roving and grazing,' so as to produce in the mind of the spectators 'a gratifying, social and rural impression.' This part of the work is furnished with a profusion of learned notes: giving an account of the atmosphere, the nature of contagious effluvia, the effects of respiration, the action of the winds, &c. &c. We are, however, concerned to observe that they abound with inaccuracies; so much so, that to point out all their errors would carry us to a length greater than that of the original. We shall merely notice the author's opinion respecting contagion; he supposes it to depend on an acid principle diffused through the air,

which

which may be the most efficaciously corrected by alkaline vapors. We admire the intrepidity of Mr. Goodwin, in thus boldly proposing his sentiments, unawed by the experiments of Guyton and Smyth; or by the sanction of the British parliament, who, as is well known, voted to the latter gentleman a considerable reward for employing a directly contrary practice.

In the chemical part, the author properly begins by an examination of the stratum from which the spring issues, and then proceeds to analyze the waters themselves. He gives a detail of the experiments which were performed: but we confess that we are not by any means thoroughly satisfied respecting the justness of the conclusions drawn from them. We do not see the grounds on which Mr. G. has fixed the quantities of the different ingredients that he specifies; and we doubt whether he is authorized to admit even the existence of some of them. However, it appears pretty evident that a principal ingredient is the sulphate of magnesia; and to this salt the water probably owes such virtues as it may possess.

Besides the extraneous and ornamental matter which we have already noted, Mr. G. has given at some length the directions issued by the Humane Society; because there are some ponds at Hampstead, in which persons may be drowned! We have also a full account of the effects of bathing in its different varieties, because baths might be formed at Hampstead with the water of the mineral spring;—and, lastly, we have a complete detail of the rules and regulations of a benefit club at Hampstead, because Mr. Goodwin is the surgeon and apothecary thereof!

Bos.

POETRY.

Art. 20. *Fatal Curiosity*, or the Vision of Silvester, a Poem in three Books. By Joseph Bounden. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1805.

"*Where ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise,*" is the moral of this poem; which is written by a young man, to exemplify the impossibility of supporting life under those anticipations which would arise from a knowlege of future events. Silvester, the hero of the poem, is rich and happy with a beautiful wife and five children: but he is anxious to be acquainted with their destiny, and discloses his wish to his guardian spirit who appears to him in a dream. The Genius, after having vainly endeavoured to convince him of his imprudence in desiring to know that which for wise purposes Providence has concealed, at last accedes to his request, and in consequence the following information is afforded:

'Silvester perceives his wife mourning over his corpse, filled with grief and horror. Time assuages her affliction, and she bestows her hand on a favored suitor. His agony on that account. He sees some of his favourite friends plotting to defraud his children. They are prevented by disagreement among themselves. His four sons appear in the pride of manhood. Edward mourns under a long and raging sickness. He is restored to health; blest with a wife and child; in the midst of happiness and tranquillity. The joy occasioned by that sight to Silvester is suddenly overthrown by the appearance

of John, holding midnight conferences with a gang of ruffians, plotting to destroy their king, and the laws and government of their country. He unfolds the plot to Edward, and invites him to assist in its execution. Edward refuses: and John, to prevent his discovering the traiterous conspiracy, instantly murders him: then returns to his companions; harangues them, and urges the immediate execution of their determined purpose; from which they are prevented by the arrival of an armed force, by whom they are conveyed to prison; and Silvester sees his son receive the punishment of treason, a public, ignominious, and horrid death. He beholds Charles seduced into a life of vicious pleasure. His gradual progress to the worst of the vices of libertinism; ruining the innocent without remorse, and deriding the aged. Smitten by compunction, he seeks his abandoned home. He laments his loss of pure delights; 'till, unable to bear the reproaches of his conscience, he finishes his career by suicide. Henry appears; a virtuous deserving youth. He is enamoured of a lovely accomplished damsel; but when on the point of receiving her hand, he is torn from her by a powerful rival, who accuses him of crimes never committed, or imagined by him. He is sentenced to banishment, and expires there. Last of all his offspring, his daughter appears. He is ravished at the sight. An honourable suitor obtains her hand; but soon after marriage she falls a victim to the arts of a designing villain. Is detected by her lord, dismissed his presence, and forced to seek support in a life of dishonour; which she terminates by a premature death, in the midst of poverty and disease; and her mother soon after dies of a broken heart. But her children, by her second lord, are as happy and fortunate as Silvester wished his. This fills him with anguish: and in the act of complaining of the injustice and partiality of heaven, he awakes.'

Silvester is of course in an agony of grief, on having obtained his request; he inveighs against heaven, is disgusted with his wife, and shocked by the sight of his children. Nothing affords him pleasure; and, overwhelmed with anguish and remorse, he terminates his life by suicide.

Such is the plan of this poem, which strikingly illustrates the design of the author: but his numbers are not equal to his imagination. His lines are often tame and prosaic; and we think that, had he suffered it to remain in a bureau, and had corrected it when his taste was improved, the composition might have appeared before the public with more advantage than it does in its present state. As a specimen, we give the conclusion:

> ' ———————— Thus then, at most,
> Few years or months stand between me and Fate.
> And in that space what must I not endure;
> And what can I enjoy!—yes, Wretch, thy Wife
> Survives, united to a happier Man.
> Her Children by that prosperous union blest,
> While thine—what am I, then, but dead already:
> Dead by Fore-knowledge; dead by certainty
> Of still accumulating boundless Woe.

My thoughts are worse than Death! 'tis not in Man
Long to support the pains I suffer now,
And I will not—I cannot if I would
Life's hopeless burthen bear.—Here, where my CHARLES
Is destin'd, I will end it.'—By his path
The River flow'd—he rush'd into the stream;
That stream the beauty of his fair Domain,
So often seen with calm delight, so oft
Witness of Love and of parental Joy.
He struggled, gasp'd; sunk, rose;—sunk, and expired.
Sunk to await that dread Futurity
The Vision left conceal'd. The Vision's bounds
To this brief Life confined!—Thus he expired:
Unequal to the scanty picture here,
Tablet of transient Good and fleeting Ill;
Reckless of the Eternity unknown:
Strange and tremendous proof how mad the wish
So oft by Man exprest, to know the END
Destin'd by his CREATOR: who alone
Foresees the SUM of THINGS; and who alone,
—As inaccessible to pain or ill,
And knowing all is WISE, and JUST, and GOOD,
Which he hath will'd,—FORE-KNOWLEDGE should possess.'

Whatever may be the *curiosity* of individuals to acquire this 'fore-knowledge,' we see no reason for supposing that they will be gratified, and therefore little occasion for warning them of the dangers of such an attainment.

Moy.

Art. 21. *Alfred;* an Epic Poem in 24 Books. By Joseph Cottle. Second Edition. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1804.

Though we do not, in general, notice second editions of works which have been formerly reviewed, our attention to the present article has been solicited by a new preface; in which Mr. Cottle announces that he has made considerable alterations in his poem. He has also endeavoured to defend his work against the criticisms which it has undergone; and we perceive that the opinion which we have given has not had the good fortune to please him. As far as our remarks are concerned in Mr. Cottle's preface, we confess that we deem him unsuccessful in his reply; particularly when he supposes that we object to simplicity of style. We have said, and we repeat it, that some modern writers do not distinguish between simplicity and meanness; we have therefore endeavoured to expose that low style of writing, which we observe inculcated both in prose and verse; and which we conceive to proceed from the antipodes of good taste and true genius. When the perversion of poetry is openly patronized, it becomes the duty of critics to resist the impulse. We have opposed the absurd fondness for German plays, with success; and we shall continue to withstand the barbarous innovators, who are attempting to despoil poetry of her fairest and richest ornaments, and

to reduce her to the beggarly state of a ballad-singer, or a Sternholdian rhymer.

With regard to Mr. Cottle's alterations, we do not perceive great improvement in his poetical style. Much might be said on this subject: but we are deterred by a hint which he has dropped towards the end of his preface. We shall therefore content ourselves with wishing him success in the sale of his book, though we cannot sacrifice the *canon laws of our foundation* to promote his interest. Fer.

Art. 22. *The Battle of Trafalgar.* Stanzas, by the Rev. James Beresford, A.M., Fellow of Merton College, Oxford. To which is added Nelson's Last Victory: a Song. By a Friend. 4to. 1s. Hatchard.

Every muse will be alert on this occasion: but every muse is not equal to so noble a subject. We will not say of Mr. Beresford, *Magnis tamen excidit ausis;* though we must observe that his poetic execution has not been equal to his patriotic enthusiasm. He transports us to the scene of action, and endeavours to give an appropriate description of the well-conducted and well-fought battle of Trafalgar; and he has discovered some address in changing the metre from the heroic to the elegiac, when he introduces the death of the glorious hero of that ever memorable day. His language, however, is not sufficiently elevated; nor are his epithets always happily chosen. It is surely beneath the dignity of the subject to say of Nelson that

'He rul'd the *riot* with his nod;'

that 'he *plagues* in fight;' that 'he *craz'd* the hopes' of the enemy, and '*cow'd* his war.' Mr. B. probably meant, by calling the Spanish ship *Santissima Trinidada*, 'an audacious name,' to condemn the presumptuous impiety of giving such an appellation to a vessel of war; but a better epithet might have been chosen, and the censure might have been more pointedly conveyed. As the subject, however, is deservedly popular, we shall copy a few of his stanzas:

'To Britain's sacred signal true
All stood—and bolder rose the bold:
From heart to heart the madness flew,
And ev'ry flash in ruin told.

'Then England knew her godlike Son!—
Calm, through the hurtling rage he trod,
And stay'd, or set the havoc on,
And rul'd the riot with his nod.

'Their proudest, of colossal frame,
He sever'd for his own—and swore
To silence *that audacious name**
His Genius once rebuk'd before.

'The Monster-ship, with grappling close,
He plagues—he storms—he stuns in fight.—

'* Santissima Trinidada.'

Thus

Thus David on Goliath rose;
Thus call'd on God, and quell'd his might.

'Full soon—'twas Nelson's star that glar'd—
The cannon's horrid work is done;
And, what his iron storm had spar'd,
Have Wreck and Conflagration won.

'Yes!—while the swelling Despot roar'd
For "ships, and vassal realms afar,"
Our angry Heroes, all aboard,
Craz'd his hopes, and *cow'd* his war.

'Let the shout of conquest rise!
A double navy disappears!—
No!—silent all:—the triumph dies,
And exultation melts in tears.

'What dims the lightning in Britannia's eye?
Why droops her dang'rous Lion on the shore?
Why sudden pause her thousand thunders?—Why!
Her Pride, her Life, her Nelson—is no more!'

Mr. B.'s friend, in the Song annexed, is not more successful than himself:

'They strike—they yield—their flags are *prone*,
On every side we tear them down;'

this is a just but not a poetical description of the action; and we are not satisfied with having the death of the hero thus tamely sung,

'The hour is come, and 'tis decreed
That glorious Nelson's self must bleed.'

The death of Nelson, including all the circumstances of it, forms an affecting subject for the orator and the poet. He may be considered as expiring in a moment most propitious to his fame;—in the moment, considering his ill state of health, which not only he himself but his friends would have chosen;—and it might be said, to borrow the words of a lady on this occasion, as we heard them applied,

"In his death was no sting,
In his grave—everlasting victory."

Mo-y.

Art. 23. *Modern Paris:* a free Imitation of the Third Satire of Juvenal. Cr. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1805.

The Roman Satirist says of himself, *Facit indignatio versum:* but it is not always true that passion and poetry are united. Indignation must be disciplined by discretion; or otherwise we turn with disgust from the censurer. To deal forth abuse by wholesale may gratify resentment, but it will, in a great measure, defeat its own purpose. When the picture is blackened beyond all bounds of probability, the artist fails to obtain credit, and we think of the old adage, "the devil is painted blacker than he is." This poetical imitator has, we think, allowed his rage too wide a scope; in consequence of which, his poem cannot survive the enmity which at present subsists between England and France. In the spirit of patriotism, we make this remark; for while

we devoutly wish success to our country in the present important struggle, we would not combat the foe with base and dishonourable weapons. If we reprobate the enemy, (and, in too many instances, he is reprehensible,) let us not be chargeable with, nor countenance, abuse; let us not write, nor patronize, any thing of which, in the hour of tranquillity, we shall be ashamed. Many circumstances in Bonaparte's conduct are fair objects of satire: but there is something too coarse in this couplet:

'Such as was ne'er exhibited before,
The coronation of a r— and wh—,'

Again,

'Hear Bonaparte's lust, in Barras' lot,—
Cold to his friend, to his friend's mistress hot;'

and the lines which soon follow do not seem to relate to his government, but rather to the reign of terror:

'Where Buonaparte offers to his God,
If God he have, the sacrifice of blood;
Where Jews, to prove Jews ev'ry where are found,
Hire even of the guillotine the ground;
Keep shops beneath the sanguinary shade,
Wet with the droppings from its fatal blade;
Which, like the sword of Damocles, in dread
Hangs by a hair above their guilty head.'

The author next divulges his wish respecting the Corsican: but it is in such obscure and hobbling verse, that we cannot applaud his taste, whatever we may say of his zeal:

'On to the Thuilleries, where dwells, alas!
The source of all our suff'rings, next we pass;
Where the straight avenue and prim parterre
Its want of taste and elegance declare;
As thus *without*, would only so *within!*
Would folly here ended not there in sin!
Here only art abus'd disgusts our sights,
There outrag'd Nature's robbed of all her rights.
There sits the tyrant (would there lay!) in state,
The fearful foe to all that's good and great;
Of France the scourge, the curse of all the world;
Not yet, soon surely to be from it hurl'd:
The modern Satan, by his imps ador'd,
In his own chaos by himself restor'd.'

Bonaparte is not yet dismissed. *Sæpe vocatus est ad partes.*

'Sçavant or scavenger, his talents meet,
In both extremes, the study and the street.'

* * *

'Through fire, air, water, earth alike speeds well,
If not to heaven, full as far—to hell.'

* * *

'When like *a Bantam cock*, he struts and crows,
Or, like Punch in a passion, squeaks and goes.'—

Such

Such are the squibs (called satirical) shot from this popgun.—An ardent supplication is offered to the Deity in behalf of England, in which the author prays that it may be

> ' A second ark, after man's second fall,
> Safe in itself that safety brings to all;
> Its pilot Pitt, another Noah, sent,
> As first of men, mankind to rescue meant.'—

Though the imitator is thus ardent in prayer for England, he appears, by the following couplet, to be a Frenchman. After having remarked that every prison is now become a Bastile, he adds,

> ' While former sov'reigns were content with one,
> And *our* last Louis without that has done.'

The *topsy-turveyism* occasioned by the revolution, ' the dregs of Paris risen to the scum,' is a fair subject for the satiric muse: it is here delineated at some length; and the picture concludes with,

> ' Another *revolution* may restore
> All to their proper places as before.'

Dr. Johnson's beautiful and nervous imitation of this Satire, intitled " London," is familiar to our poetical readers; after which, ' Modern Paris' must appear to very great disadvantage. The state of morals in all overgrown cities is nearly the same: but we hope that London, with all its wickedness, is not so sunken in depravity as Paris; where Italians, we are told, import

> ' Their vice without th' excuses of their sky,
> And girls and boys at *Palais Royal* ply.'

Perhaps to the English verse of a French Royalist some allowance ought to be made; and, though we often smile at his lame and hobbling couplets, it is surprising, on the whole, that this poem is not more defective. The author has given full vent to his rage against the present ruler of France, and he wields the pen as a sort of pastime or recreation, till he is summoned

> ' ——————————to wield the sword
> Against her lawless, for her lawful Lord.'

To make farther extracts would be to heap the plate of our poetical reader from a dish very indifferently cooked.

Mo-y.

Art. 24. *Nelson's Tomb*, a Poem. By William Thomas Fitzgerald, Esq. Author of Nelson's Triumph, or the Battle of the Nile, &c. To which is added, an Address to England on her Nelson's Death. By the same Author. 4to. 2s. 6d. Asperne.

Even while the remains of our immortal warrior have been passing over the bosom of the ocean, to receive the merited honours of public interment, Mr. Fitzgerald has apparently exclaimed, in the words of our great bard,

> " He must not float upon his wat'ry bier
> Unwept, - - - - -
> Without the meed of some melodious tear."

He

He has therefore employed his muse in weaving a laurel wreath for the brow of the hero, in suggesting ideas to the sculptor for the erection of his monument, in cherishing our noblest feelings, and in swelling the torrent of public lamentation, on which his revered ashes will be wafted to the tomb. After having delineated the approach of the warrior's remains to his native shore, and the lamentations of his admiring countrymen, the poet thus sketches his design for the tomb:

'In Parian marble let the SCULPTOR grave,
The deeds of NELSON on the boundless wave!
There let the vanquish'd Nile his homage pay,
Pale with the horror of ABOUKIR's day!
The blazing ORIENT should increase his dread—
The LOTOS trembling on the river's head.
Egypt's proud Pyramids, for ages found,
An useless wonder on a barren ground;
Now stand the monuments of British fame,
Inscrib'd by glory with her NELSON's name!
These, on the Tomb, must rise in lofty pride,
Sea-marks of triumph! peering o'er the tide.
The eye must view the Scandinavian yield
His gallant sword, and well-defended shield;
The princely Dane his manly grief shall shew
For him, whom France once rendered Denmark's foe.—
Whole fleets subdued must grace the Hero's Shrine,
The sinking bulwark, and the broken line!
While brave Iberia, on her swelling flood,
Is drench'd in native, and in Gallic blood.
Partakers of their HONOUR'D ADMIRAL'S doom,
Let DUFF, and COOKE, be mention'd on his tomb;
With ev'ry Briton who resign'd his breath,
And gain'd his Country's gratitude in death!
To crown the work, the Artist's skill must trace
A faithful copy of the HERO'S face;
When VICTOR in TRAFALGAR'S dreadful fight,
Glory convey'd him to the REALMS OF LIGHT!!
Emboss'd with gold, and full in public view,
These lines shall strike—emphatically true!

"This trophied Monument did England raise
To shew her Gratitude, and speak her Praise—
No other Epitaph her Nelson needs,
Than his own Name, and his immortal Deeds!—"

In the address to England, Mr. F. describes, with energy, our Nelson's recent exertions in pursuit of the enemy, and the glorious circumstances of his last victory and death.

Mr. Fitzgerald's lines are pathetic and harmonious; and had not the poem reached us at a very late period of the month, we should probably have borrowed a few more of them for the gratification of our readers.

Mo-y.

BOTANY.

Art. 25. *A Botanical Dictionary:* or, Elements of Systematic and Philosophical Botany. By Colin Milne, LL.D. Author of Institutes of Botany, and Habitations of English Plants The 3d Edition, revised, corrected, and very considerably enlarged Illustrated by Twenty five new Plates. 8vo. Price 1l. 1s., plain, 1l. 15s. coloured. Boards. Symonds.

As we entered pretty fully into the merits of the first edition of this work *, we shall now refrain from any particular analysis of its more enlarged and improved form. Though yet far from perfection, it is the most reputable publication of the kind in the English language; and the additional plates, and several of the new articles, eminently contribute to enhance its value. We fear, however, that Dr. Milne is unacquainted with some of the best recent sources of information, or he has treated them with unbecoming neglect. When the names of the elder botanists occur in almost every page, we have not been able to discern those of Senebier, Bulliard, Hedwig, and others of nearly equal celebrity. The whole of De Jussieu's nomenclature was likewise worthy of insertion. We are, indeed, aware that the learned compiler may remind us of the increased bulk of his volume: but, if he had been careful to expunge all the superfluous passages, especially many of those which refer to very equivocal uses of plants, and to obsolete theoretical opinions, he would have preserved ample room for a complete explanation of the systematic vocabulary. It is likewise with concern that we perceive a disposition to subtract, on various occasions, from the merits and pretensions of the illustrious founder of the sexual system.—With these and a few other exceptions, which may be of too minute a description to be pointed out, we would recommend this Dictionary to the attention not only of the tyro in botany, but to the student who has made some proficiency in that amusing and delightful science.

Muir.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 26. *The Plague Stayed:* a Scriptural View of Pestilence, particularly of that dreadful Pestilence the Small Pox, with Considerations on the Cow-Pock; in Two Sermons, the first preached before the University of Cambridge, Feb. 24, 1805, with Notes and Illustrations; the second, in the Parish Church of Hinxton, Cambridgeshire, March 3, 1805. By the Rev James Plumptre, M.A. Fellow of Clare Hall, and Sequestrator of Hinxton. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons.

We shall endeavour, with all possible brevity, to give the substance of these singular sermons. Mr. P. informs us that Mohammedanism, the Papal power, and modern Infidelity, constitute the threefold form of *Anti-christ;* and that, as sin and punishment are connected in the divine administration, it may be concluded that this blasphemous and wicked power could not run its career without the visible signs of God's wrath, without some striking evils accompanying it. Accordingly we find the *Vial of Wrath* poured out. That "noisome and

* See Review, vol. xliii. p. 207., and vol. lix. p 69.

grievous

grievous sore," the *Small-pox*, was first known at the time of the impostor Mohammed; as well as the introduction into Europe of *another* disease, which shall be nameless. Since, however, the pestilence of the small-pox was not, like former divine judgments, sent in a miraculous way, but had its origin in second causes, we may suppose that natural means will be used for its mitigation and extinction, by which "the plague shall be stayed," (the text). Inoculation, which was expected to produce this effect, has failed; but it has led the way to one of the greatest temporal blessings which the Preserver of the universe has ever conferred on mankind; viz. the discovery of Vaccine Innoculation; and if the Arabian Impostor be called Apollyon, (the *Destroyer*,) Dr. Jenner, whose name might be supposed to be derived from the Greek work γεννάω, to *generate* and *restore*, (as Apollyon from ἀπόλλυμι, to destroy,) should be hailed as the benefactor and restorer of mankind. The small pox has already raged 1100 years, and perhaps the period of 1260 years may be affixed to it. 'Mahommedanism and Popery have had their rise, have reached their summit, and are upon their decline; with them perhaps the pestilence may cease, and it may take the remainder of the period ere prejudice shall universally adopt the remedy.' The British nation has been the means of extending the blessing of vaccination to every quarter of the globe; and, as 'perhaps we are the purest nation upon the earth,' we may contribute to diffuse farther light and happiness. In conclusion, Mr. P. remarks that the *plague* had its origin among the Turks, that the *leprosy* was brought into Europe by mad Crusaders, and that the *yellow fever*, which rages in the West Indies, 'that warehouse of enslaved Africans, seems to chastise the nation that traffics in them.' This aukward glance at the slave trade (which, by the way, is no proof of our being the purest nation on the earth,) is counterbalanced by a high eulogy on Britain for her extensive charities; yet, lest we should lay too much stress on this circumstance, we are reminded that it will not avail unless sin ceases among us.—The notes subjoined to the first Sermon are curious and amusing.

The second Sermon is in a great measure a repetition of that which was delivered before the University, adapted to the congregation of a parish church; and here the preacher combats, which was not necessary in addressing a learned body, the vulgar objections to vaccination. We do not pledge ourselves to defend all Mr. P.'s hypotheses: but we heartily concur with him in wishing, that no prejudice may obstruct the use of so valuable and important a discovery as that of cow-pock. Moy.

Art. 27. *The prophetic and anticipated History of the Church of Rome*, written and published six Hundred Years before the Rise of that Church. In which the prophetic Figures and Allegories are literally explained; and her Tricks, Frauds, Blasphemies, and dreadful Persecutions of the Church of Christ are foretold and described. Prefaced by an Address dedicatory, expostulatory, and critical, to the Rev. Mr. Whitaker, Dean of Canterbury, &c. &c. By Joseph Galloway, Esq. 8vo. 5s. Boards. West, Jones, &c.

Had Mr. Galloway been trained by a professed polemical drill-serjeant,

serjeant, he could not have been more expert in that most dextrous manœuvre in theological controversy, the substitution of abusive epithets for calm argument. He can see the defects of other expositors: but he shews no temper when his own comments are attacked. We shall not waste our time by discussing with him what he terms the interpretations and completions of the prophecies of the Apocalypse: but we shall venture to pronounce that his explanations are altogether visionary and unfounded, unworthy the attention of the sober critic, and calculated to excite the sneer rather than to produce the conviction of the Infidel. Moy.

Art. 28. *A full and complete Analysis of Dr. Paley's Natural Theology*; or Evidences of the Existence and Attributes of the Deity: collected from the Appearances of Nature. By Jeremiah Joyce. 8vo. pp. 161. 3s. Conder. 1804.

Mr. Joyce seems to have faithfully executed his task: but whether that task be beneficial, or not, is to us a matter of doubt. Abridgments did not grow prevalent till the decline of letters; and the losses of valuable works, which they have occasioned, has been often regretted. It may be said that, from that danger, we of this day are perfectly secure: but are we certain that these seductive abstracts will not lead to another evil, that of occasioning the originals to be neglected? They seem to be allowable chiefly in the case of very voluminous and expensive works: which can be consnlted only by the few, but the substance of which it is desirable to impart to the many. Mr. Joyce earnestly, and, we doubt not, very sincerely, recommends the perusal of his author, while he has taken an effectual step (undesignedly) to circumscribe it. Jo.

THANKSGIVING SERMONS, *Dec.* 5.

Art. 29. *The Destruction of the combined Fleets of France and Spain*—preached at Worship-street. By John Evans, M.A. 8vo. 1s. Symonds.

The text of this discourse, Rev. viii. 9. *And a third part of the ships were destroyed*, is not considered as prophetic, but is merely chosen by the preacher as applicable to the late maritime victory; in which, he observes, even more than a third part of the enemy's ships were destroyed. It is farther remarked that this victory is not only great but seasonable, as well as exhilarating; dissipating (for the present, at least,) the fear of invasion, giving greater security to our ships of commerce, and tending to facilitate (though not *immediately*) the blessings of peace. After this view of the subject, Mr. Evans offers some practical reflections, and exhorts his hearers to contribute to the Patriotic Fund. Moy.

Art. 30. *Preached in Oxford Chapel by Cavendish Square*; by the Rev. David Evans, Assistant Minister of the said Chapel. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

With piety adapted to the occasion, Mr. Evans combines loyalty and patriotic sentiment. He apologizes for what might be termed the indulgence of carnal resentment, in his picture of the 'stripling foreigner who has risen to empire by a successful sword:' but the feelings of his hearers being probably in unison with his own, they would

would be rather gratified than disgusted by the preacher's indignant Philippic.

Moy.

Art. 31. *Preached in the Parish Church of St. Mary, Shrewsbury.* By John Brickdale Blakeway, A. M., Minister of the Parish. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

The pre-eminent blessings which Britain now enjoys are not here enumerated with a narrow spirit, as if the preacher rejoiced in their being withholden from other nations; nor does he comment on them in a way that is calculated to flatter our own vanity and pride: but he laudably endeavours to assist his hearers in viewing political events through a Christian medium, that Christian virtue may be the result.

D.o

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 32. *The Character of the Christian Teacher delineated, and the Means of forming it represented;* delivered at Hackney, January 8, 1805, for the Benefit of the Academical Institution at Exeter; and published at the Request of the Congregation. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

That the Christian minister should be "faithful," and "able to teach," is asserted by St. Paul in the text (2 Tim. ii. 2.); and the preacher in this discourse delineates the qualifications which the fulfilment of his task requires, and urges their high importance in the present state of the church. After having shewn how necessary it is that the Christian teacher should be deeply convinced of the truth of Revelation; possess enlightened and fervent piety; be well instructed; honourable and fearless; disinterested, zealous, yet prudent and charitable; a man of learning and grave elocution; and a living example of the power of Christian principle over the temper, heart, and life; he proceeds to enumerate the means by which such characters may be formed, the most efficacious of which he considers to be Academical Institutions, or Colleges, furnished with proper tutors for the instruction of youth devoted to the Ministry. He laments that rational Dissenters have *now* no College near London for the education of Ministers, and pays high compliments to an Institution of this kind which existed near the metropolis some years ago, but which, owing to the narrow views of the Managers, was dissolved. Mr. B. concludes with recommending the Academical Institution at Exeter to the patronage of rational Christians.

D.o

Art. 33. *The Character and final Perseverance of the Righteous;*—preached at St. Margaret's Chapel, Westminster, December 16, 1804, on occasion of the Death of Mrs. Henrietta Stemler, who departed this Life December 6, 1804, aged 55; with some interesting Particulars of her Life and Death. By John Davies, M. A. &c. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

The remarks which here introduce the account of the deceased are of a Calvinistic stamp, and the preacher laments Mrs. Stemler's acquaintance with Mr. John Wesley, who had disturbed her comfort by raising doubts about the defectibility of grace: but Mrs. Stemler obtained, before her death, an assurance of the perseverance of the saints, and, according to the preacher, was an example of it. She

was

was born at Berne, and kept a school for young ladies in Queen's Square, Westminster.

D.º

Art. 34. *Preached in Lambeth Chapel*, April 28, 1805, at the Consecration of the Rt. Rev. Henry Bathurst, LL. D. Lord Bishop of Norwich, and published at the Command of the Archbishop of Canterbury. By Richard Prosser, D. D. Prebendary of Durham. 4to. 1s. Payne.

It is clearly this author's aim to apply the text, (Ephes. iv. 15, 16) with corresponding passages of Scripture, to that particular form of church-government, of which he is a member: other parties may deem the account equally suitable to their own;—and so it may be, if Christian piety, truth, and benevolence, actuate the several individuals. Such is, without doubt, the intention of the sacred writers, to prove that, as in the body of man, so also in human society, and particularly in the church of Christ, all the constituent parts, however inferior any of them may seem, have each their importance, and may and ought to be rendered beneficial; as they certainly will, if they are influenced and governed by the spirit of Christ.—Respecting particular *forms and orders* of ecclesiastical discipline, varying opinions will prevail.—Happy had it been, and would it yet be, if, while churches observe their distinct modes, they would attribute to them but small consequence in comparison with that humility, that union of affection, and that bond of peace for which Christianity so powerfully pleads; yet which, by differing and especially predominant parties, are too generally rejected. Dr. Prosser delivers himself with much propriety of diction; his composition bearing the marks of considerable polish, and his periods being studiously finished.

Hi.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Mr. Dallas, author of the "Elements of Self Knowlege," mentioned in our last Review, has favored us with a letter respecting the criticisms in that article, and referring to a second edition of the work, just published. With regard to our remarks, Mr. D. wishes it to be remembered that his volume was professedly a compilation, and professedly no more than elementary; that therefore he conceives himself not open to censure where he is found to have borrowed; nor where he has failed to go deeper into a science than he deemed requisite in an elementary treatise. This is very true: but there is a difference in degree, in this sort of literary labour: to *compile* is one thing, and to *transcribe* is another; and it seems most proper, where large *quotations* are made, to assign them to their original sources. 'A young Lady,' whose letter bears the Nottingham post-mark, has reminded us that the passages on Pride and Vanity, which we extracted from Mr. D.'s book, were borrowed by him from Adam Smith's *Theory of Moral Sentiments*: but this fair critic seems to have been herself rather under the influence of these qualities, from the smartness with which she communicates her discovery; and she should have recollected that Smith was mentioned as one of Mr. Dallas's acknowleged sources. This circumstance

stance shews, however, that, as we have just observed, Mr. D. would have done well in specifying those instances in which he copied largely from others.

The second edition of these *Elements* is in several respects different from the former. Besides being throughout revised, the anatomical part is made more simple, and the technical terms are explained at the bottom of the page. It is also augmented by Arbuthnot's poem intitled *Know thyself*, and by Collins's *Ode on the Passions*. Moy. & G. 2.

We have received a letter from Mr. Eyton, author of a Sermon on the late Naval Victory, noticed in our last Number; in which he alleges that we mis-stated his meaning respecting the particular seasons of the occurrence of national blessings: but we do not subscribe to the justice of the charge, though we are very ready to admit his explanation. We merely adverted to the position, which is or is not true, independently of the context. Of his reasoning we were aware: but, unconnected with the context, if the assertion be true that the greatest national blessings have been experienced when iniquity has most abounded, the principle on which fast-day and thanksgiving Sermons are generally built completely falls to the ground. Preachers should take care to erect their expostulations on sound premises. Moy.

Dr. Adams has pointed out to us an error of the press in our account of his "Answers to Objections against the Cow-Pox," in our last Review: where at p. 328. l. 8. *hepatic* is printed instead of *herpetic*. The Doctor also informs us that he has published a new edition of his pamphlet, in which he notices those adverse productions which have appeared since his first impression.

Inquisitor apprizes us that the biographical notice of *Beaumarchais*, and the remarks on his writings, which appeared in our last *Appendix*, pp. 490—492. were copied without acknowlegement into a Magazine of some standing, for November last.—We know that this practice is often adopted by the Editors of Magazines; who perhaps think that it is fair, from the nature of their work: but we conceive that it would be fairer to state their obligations, because otherwise they may subject us to the suspicion of having copied from them, in the minds of those who do not advert to priority of dates.

We occasionally receive letters from America, respecting the delivery of the numbers of the M. R. to individuals: but we beg to inform all our Western Friends that we have no concern with this matter, which rests with the Booksellers who correspond between the *old and the new world*.—This note applies in particular to a recent letter from New York.

In the last Review, P. 300. l. 32. dele *with*.—P. 328. l. 8. for '*hepatic*,' read *herpetic*. P. 336. l. 8. insert the word *better* before '*chance*.'

☞ The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published with the Number for January.

Errata. p. 373, 393, 403, 418, 421, 438.

APPENDIX

TO THE

FORTY-EIGHTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Mémoires de l' Institut, &c. Memoirs of the National Institute of Arts and Sciences. Vol. V. 4to. Paris. Imported by De Boffe.

We resume our analysis of this *livraison* of the proceedings of this learned body, by directing our attention to the volume which relates to the

MATHEMATICAL *and* PHYSICAL SCIENCES;

and we shall divide its contents under two corresponding heads, beginning with the

MATHEMATICAL *and* ASTRONOMICAL PAPERS.

HISTORY. *Report made to the Mathematical and Physical Class, concerning the Astronomical and Nautical Observations of* Joseph Joachim de Ferrer. *By* M. LEVÊQUE.—The observations here mentioned form the basis of certain geographical determinations made in South America and the Azores. M. *Ferrer* having very properly described the Instruments, and the methods and formulas of calculation which he employed, together with the precautions and artifices suggested or made necessary by local circumstances, the Commission, in whose name M. LEVÊQUE speaks, turned their attention to these points: for thus only they could be enabled to judge of the accuracy of M. *Ferrer*'s geographical determinations. The Instruments employed by that gentleman were of English manufacture, and by the best Artists: except in one instance, the Commission approves of his *methods*; the formulas of calculation were such

as are generally known and used, and no objection therefore could be made against these; and, altogether, it appears that much benefit has been conferred on Geography by M. *Ferrer*. In the present report, several particular Geographical Determinations are put down; and we hope that the whole will be made public, in order that our Maps and Charts may speedily receive the necessary corrections.

Report relative to a new system of constructing Masts for Vessels. By M. LEVÊQUE.—The new invention here reported is that of a Mast-maker at Rotterdam; by the adoption of which, Masts are to be made lighter and more easy of repair. The Class, to whose judgment the Invention was submitted, approved the design; and the Reporter introduces into his paper some interesting information concerning several problems in Nautical Mechanics.

Report made to the Mathematical and Physical Class. By M. CAMUS.—This paper refers to an examination ordered to be instituted respecting the capacity of the Antient Paris Pint. In the new measures, this pint is fixed at 46.95 cubic inches: but it was contended that the capacity ought to be 48. This latter opinion originated, it appears, from the existence of pint measures used in 1747, and which the Parliament had proscribed in 1750.

Report on a Memoir of M. Gail, *intitled Description of an Astrolabe by Synesius.* By M. DELAMBRE.

MEMOIR. *On the Stereographic Projection*; by the same.

We have ranged these two papers together, because the memoir was drawn up in consequence of the Report. The memoir of *Gail* is almost a complete translation of Synesius's letter to Pæonius, which accompanied the present of a silver Astrolabe; and it appears, by the evidence of this letter, that Hipparchus was the original Inventor of the Planisphere, and not Ptolemy. This latter Astronomer was probably not fully acquainted with all the properties of the stereographic projection: for instance, he did not know that all circles of the sphere, excepting those of which the plane passes through the eye, are in the stereographic projection always projected into circles; and this remarkable property was, in fact, for a long period, within the reach of Mathematicians, without their availing themselves of it. It is demonstrated in Apollonius, that the sub-contrary section of a cone is, like the base, a circle. The step to be made, therefore, in order to prove the projection of a circle to be a circle, was that the plane of projection forms a sub-contrary Section in every cone, the vertex of which is the eye, and the base a circle of the sphere. Easy

as

as this step is, it was not achieved till fifteen hundred years after the time of Hipparchus.

One remarkable property of the Stereographic projection has been already mentioned: another, equally curious, unknown to Ptolemy, is that the circles of projection intersect each other in the same angle as the circles on the sphere. The proof of this property is the object of M. DELAMBRE's memoir; and it is effected with great conciseness, and with what may be called mathematical elegance. In fact, he deduces the proof from two expressions; one, that of the distance of the centre of the sphere from the projected pole of the projected circle; the other, that of the radius of the projected circle. If P be the pole, PE the arc drawn from P to the circumference of the circle to be projected, and if AP be the distance of P from the pole of projection, then the expression for the distance of the centre of the sphere from the pole of the projected circle $= \frac{\text{sin. } AP}{\text{cos. } AP + \text{cos. } PE}$, and radius of projected circle $= \frac{\text{sin. } PE}{\text{cos. } AP + \text{cos. } PE}$.

M. DELAMBRE subjoins a geometrical demonstration of the property of the projection, and applies his formulas to the construction of maps which represent the earth projected. His memoir also contains the solution of all the problems which Synesius says he had resolved.

In the report and in the connected memoir, considerable doubts are expressed whether Ptolemy was the author of the Treatise of the Planisphere. Of this treatise we have only a Latin Translation made from the Arabic.

We recommend the perusal of this paper to all lovers of mathematical science.

Notice respecting the great Logarithmic and Trigonometrical Tables calculated at the Board of Registry of Lands, under the direction of M. PRONY. By M. PRONY.

Report relative to the grand Trigonometrical Tables. By M. DELAMBRE.

The decimal division of the circle rendered the construction of new tables necessary; and ten years ago, M. PRONY was appointed to superintend and direct their formation. He was desired to select his coadjutors, not only for the obvious purpose of rendering the tables as exact as possible, but, to use his own words, '*à en faire le monument de calcul le plus vaste et le plus imposant qui eût jamais été executé ou même conçu.*'

The principle of the division of labour was applied to the construction of these tables. The calculators were divided

into three sets; the first consisting of the most able mathematicians, directing and superintending the analytical part: the second, of seven or eight skilful computists in arithmetic as well as in analysis, employed in deducing numbers from the general formulas: the third set, (and the largest, their number being from 60 to 80,) consisted of persons who were only required to add and subtract.

We observe that the method of calculating these tables differs, in some respects, from that which has been usually employed. In the present paper, the method is generally described, and we shall endeavour to make it clear to our readers by a few particulars.

Suppose v to be a function of x, and successive values of v to be v_1 v_2 v_3 — — v_n.

Let the difference between two successive values be denoted by Δv

Then $v_1 = v + \Delta v$

$$v_2 = v_1 + \Delta v_1 = v_1 + \Delta v + \Delta^2 v$$

$$v_3 = v_2 + \Delta v_2 = v_2 + \Delta v_1 + \Delta^2 v_1$$
$$= v_3 + \Delta v_1 + \Delta^2 v + \Delta^3 v$$

and generally,

$$v_n = v_{n-1} + \Delta v_{n-2} + \Delta^2 v_{n-3} + \&c.$$

Hence, Δv, $\Delta^2 v$ &c. being known, v_n may be determined. Suppose the Logarithms of 1001, 1002, 1003, &c. are to be determined: the logarithm of 1000 is $3 = v$, of $1001 = v_1$, of $1002 = v_2$ &c. Now generally log. $(x + i) =$ log. $x + m$

$$\left\{ \frac{i}{x} - \frac{1}{2.} \frac{i^2}{x^2} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{.i^3}{x^3} \right\}$$

$$\text{or } v^1 \ (v + \Delta v) = v + m \left\{ \frac{i}{x} - \frac{i^2}{2.x^2} + \frac{i^3}{3x^3} - \&c. \right\}$$

$$\text{or } \Delta v = m \left\{ \frac{i}{x} - \frac{i^2}{2.x^2} + \frac{i^3}{3x^3} - \&c. \right\}$$

and similarly may we determine

$$\Delta^2 v = - m \left\{ \frac{i^2}{x^2} - \frac{2.i^3}{x^3} + \&c. \right\}$$

$$\Delta^3 v = m \left\{ \frac{2.i^3}{x^3} - \&c. \right\}$$

In the present instance, $x = 1000$, $i = 1$, $m = .43429$ &c.
$\therefore$ log. 1001 or $v + \Delta v = 3.434147$ &c.

Again, $v_2 = v_1 + \Delta v_1 = v_1 + \Delta v + \Delta v^2$.

To

To the logarithm of 1001, then, computed as above, add the quantity $\Delta v + \Delta v^2$ computed from the preceding forms; and we obtain the logarithm of 1002.

Again, $v_3 = v_2 + \Delta v_2 = v_2 + \Delta v_1 + \Delta^2 v_1$

$$= v_2 + \Delta v + 2\Delta^2 v + \Delta^3 v$$

To the log. of 1002, add the quantity $\Delta v + 2\Delta v + \Delta^3 v$ computed as above, and we have the logarithm of 1003.

By this method, it is clear, the logarithms of numbers from 1000 to 1010, for instance, may be computed by simple additions. This number may serve as a new point of departure: thus, in preceding formulas, for x put 1010, and calculate the quantities Δv, $\Delta^2 v$, $\Delta^3 v$, &c. and then the logarithms of numbers from 1010 to 1020, by a process the same as that which we have shewn, may be obtained. For exactness, and for the sake of verifying the computations, the logarithm of 1010 ought to be calculated from the logarithmic series; and if the computation has been rightly conducted, the logarithm of 1010 so computed ought to agree with the logarithm obtained by the successive addition of the differences Δv, $\Delta^2 v$, &c. to the logarithms of 1001, 1002, &c.

The process is similar for the calculation of sines. By employing the trigonometrical formulas, Δv, $\Delta^2 v$, &c. must be computed; and then successively v_1 v_2 v_3 &c. thus,

$v_1 = \text{sin.}\,(x+i) = \text{sin.}\,x\,.\text{cos.}\,i + \text{cos.}\,x\,.\text{sin.}\,i$. $\therefore \Delta v = \text{sin.}\,x$ $(\text{cos.}\,i - 1) + \text{cos.}\,x\,\text{sin.}\,i$: but $\text{cos.}\,i - 1 = -2\left(\text{sin.}\,\frac{i}{2}\right)^2$

$$\therefore \Delta v \text{ or } \Delta\,\text{sin.}\,x = \text{cos.}\,x.\,\text{sin.}\,i - \text{sin.}\,x\,.2\left(\text{sin.}\,\frac{i}{2}\right)^2$$

Similarly, we may compute $\Delta^2 v = -4.\,\text{sin.}\,(x+i)\left(\text{sin.}\,\frac{i}{2}\right)^2$ $\Delta^3 v$ &c.

Hence it is evident that we may compute, as in logarithms, by continual addition, the sines of arcs ascending in arithmetic progression: thus $v_2 = v_1 + \Delta v$: let the difference of the arcs be 1 minute $\therefore i = 1'$: then $\text{sin.}\,(x+2') = \text{sin.}\,(x+1')$ $+ \Delta\,.\text{sin.}\,(x+1') = (\text{sin.} + 1') + \Delta\,\text{sin.}\,x + \Delta_2\,\text{sin.}\,x = \text{sin.}$ $(x+1') + \{\text{sin.}\,(x+1') - \text{sin.}\,x\} - \text{sin.}\,(x+1')\,(2\,\text{sin.}\,30'')^2$

So also,

$$\text{sin.}\,(x+3') = \text{sin.}\,(x+2') + \{\text{sin.}\,(x+2') - \text{sin.}\,(x+1')\} - \text{sin.}\,(x+2')\,(2.\text{sin.}\,30'')^2$$

The sines of arcs thus computed by successive additions were compared, at certain intervals, with sines immediately

deduced from the series. A new point of departure was fixed, and the differences were again computed. For farther verification, the computed series were examined by this formula:

$$\sin. x + \sin. (36^\circ - x) + \sin. (72^\circ + x) = \sin. (36^\circ + x) + \sin. (72^\circ - x)$$

In examining the sines computed by a direct calculation, with the same sines computed by the method of differences after eight hundred operations, it appeared, in general, that the error, accumulated after so great a number of trials, did not exceed an unit in the twenty second decimal place.

These tables are not as yet offered to the public; and we apprehend that the reason, in plain English, for the prosecution of the work being suspended, is the want of money. Government ordered the undertaking, but its *argent* is destined to other purposes. This is to be lamented: yet the tables, we think, could never come into general use, from their vast extent: nor would every one be able to purchase the volumes. There are cases, however, in which they will be very useful; and other tables may be corrected from them, or composed under an abridged form. We hope, then, soon to hear of the appearance of this great monument of calculation, under the patronage of a government which declares itself to be "*l'ami des Arts et des Sciences.*"

Explanation of a Point of History respecting certain Trigonometrical Tables. By M. PRONY.—The attention of the author, after he had undertaken the superintendence of the great Trigonometrical Tables, about to be published in France, was naturally directed to those works of the same kind which at present exist. Two of them especially claimed his attention; the *Opus Palatinum*, begun by *Rheticus* the pupil of *Copernicus*, and printed by *Otho* in 1596; and the *Thesaurus Mathematicus*, calculated by *Rheticus*, and published by *Pitiscus* in 1613.—Of these productions, a particular description and analysis were given in the Berlin Memoirs for 1786, by JOHN BERNOULLI: whence it appears that the copy of the *Opus Palatinum* in the Library of the Berlin Academy contains errors which *Pitiscus* discovered, and mentions to have discovered in his preface to the posthumous work of *Rheticus*, the *Thesaurus Mathematicus*. The copies of the *Opus Palatinum*, however, which M. PRONY first examined, and the copy in the Berlin Library, were without these corrections. The obscurity attending this circumstance was dispelled by a copy of the *Opus Palatinum* which M. PRONY luckily discovered at the shop of M. *Duprat*, a bookseller; and which contains the corrections and the explanation of every particular mentioned by *Pitiscus* in his preface to the *Thesaurus Mathe-*

Mathematicus. This copy is not a new edition, but differs from the common copies in having 86 pages of corrections made by *Pitiscus*, reprinted and bound up with the old work. The colour of the paper, and the difference of type, plainly shew what is new.

M. PRONY furnishes a brief history of *Rheticus*, and of the circumstances which attended the publication of the *Opus Palatinum* and the *Thesaurus Mathematicus*. Our histories of mathematics want correction in this respect.

In the latter part of his paper, the author gives a method by which the errors committed by Otho in his computation of cosecants and cotangents may be ascertained. Tangents and secants are derived, it is known, from sines and cosines; thus tan. $a = \frac{\text{sin. } a}{\text{cos. } a}$ and sec. $a = \frac{1}{\text{cos. } a}$: but, in calculating these quantities exact to a certain number of places of figures, we ought to consider what error in the tangent, or secant, is consequent on a given error in the sine and cosine.

Let ε be variation of cosine
e - - of sine
x - - of secant
y - - of tangent

then, sec. $a = \frac{1}{\text{cos. } a}$ $\therefore$ sec. $a + x = \frac{1}{\text{cos. } a - \varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\text{cos. } a} +$

$\frac{\varepsilon}{(\text{cos. } a)^2} + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{(\text{cos. } a)^3} +$ &c.

consequently, $x = \frac{\varepsilon}{(\text{cos. } a)^2} + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{(\text{cos. } a)^3} + \frac{\varepsilon^3}{(\text{cos. } a)^4} +$ &c.

and is less, the greater cos. a is; that is, is less, the smaller the arc a is.

Again; tan. $a = \frac{\text{sin. } a}{\text{cos. } a}$

consequently, tan. $a + y = \frac{\text{sin. } a + e}{\text{cos. } a - \varepsilon}$

$$y = \frac{\text{sin. } a + e}{\text{cos. } a - \varepsilon} - \frac{\text{sin. } a}{\text{cos. } a}$$

$$= \frac{e \text{. cos. } a + \varepsilon \text{ sin. } a}{\text{cos. } a \text{ (cos. } a - \varepsilon)}$$

but $\frac{x}{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\text{cos. } a \text{ (cos. } a - \varepsilon)}$

consequently, $y = \left\{ \text{sin. } a + \frac{e}{\varepsilon} \text{. cos. } a \right\} x$

In this case, if a be nearly a right angle, cos. a is small, and the variation of the tangent (y) nearly = sin. $a \times x$.

M. PRONY has added several tables, by which a comparison is made between the values of sines calculated by *Pitiscus*, and the values of the same sines calculated by the French mathematicians, to be inserted in their new Tables. The third table is very useful: it shews how many places of exact decimals the cosine of an arc must have, in order that the secant thence deduced may be exact to ten places of decimals. To calculate the secant of arcs from 0 to 50°, 47′, eleven exact decimals are sufficient: to calculate the secant of 88°, 51′, 14″ exact to ten places, fifteen exact places are necessary in the cosine; and to calculate the secant of 89°, 59′, 47″, twenty places are requisite.—This paper is instructive and interesting to mathematicians.

Report on the Experiments of M. Volta. By M. BIOT.—We have here a concise statement of the principal experiments made by *Volta* in Galvanism, and of the inferences which he deduced from them for the formation of a theory. The object of this theory is to reduce all the phænomena to one, the existence of which is well established; and this phænomenon is the developement or extrication of metallic electricity by the mutual contact of metals. In the opinion of the committee, of which M. BIOT is the organ, the peculiar fluid, to which, during some time, muscular contractions and the phænomena of the pile have been attributed, is identical with the common electrical fluid, put in motion by a cause of which we discern the effects although we are ignorant of its nature.—In the notes to this report, is given a mathematical demonstration of the formulas employed for the valuation of the force of the pile.

MEMOIRS.—*On the Zodiac represented on the Church at Strasburg.* By JEROME LA LANDE.—This memoir is neither very interesting nor very important, for it does not establish any curious fact. The figures which typify the several seasons are described and engraved; and they appear to be nearly the same as those which are observed on the zodiacs at Saint Denis and at Paris. M. DE LA LANDE remarks that

'We may regard these three zodiacs as a kind of agricultural calendar, and this manner of depicting nature and its operations is of the highest antiquity. It enters into the composition of sacred poems, and it is found in the monuments of the worship of the antients; especially in that of the sun, or *Mithras*, adored by the Persians. The two equinoctial points, which then answered to the Bull and the Scorpion, are characterised by these two animals, each placed at the foot of a tree; one of which has budding leaves and the other has fruits. To each tree, a torch is attached; the first elevated and lighted, the other thrown down and extinguished, to represent the Spring and Autumn.

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'However rude the sculpture of these three zodiacs may be, it appears useful to preserve their designs, in order to make known the astrological genius of the antients, and its influence on different religions.'

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Description of Circles or Rings of different Colours round the Moon, observed on the 4th of Pluviose, 7th Year.—By M. Messier.

A figure is annexed, representing this phænomenon. The author enumerates two or three similar occurrences; and he remarks that it is necessary to distinguish, with more precision than is usually employed, three different classes of phænomena, (very distinct in their characters,) which are produced by the light of the moon: 1st. The Lunar Rainbow; 2dly. The *Halo*; 3d. The Ring or Corona, described in the present memoir; of which the diameter does not exceed 10 degrees.

Calculation of different Eclipses, for the purpose of determining Geographical Longitudes. By Jerome La Lande.—The celebrated author of this memoir, during a period of forty years, has calculated, or caused to be calculated, Eclipses observed in different countries; and he here presents to the Institute a continuation of his labors.

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PHYSICAL PAPERS.

HISTORY. *Report on a Memoir of* M. Proust, respecting different interesting points in Chemistry. By M. VAUQUELIN. The memoir of M. *Proust* embraces a variety of unconnected topics; the first of which is a more simple method than the one usually adopted for procuring pure tannin. It consists in pouring the carbonate of pot-ash into an infusion of galls; by which means the tannin is separated, and falls down in a flaky form. The effect is conceived to be produced in consequence of the alkali abstracting from the infusion the water by which the tannin was before held in solution; and hence, to insure the success of the process, it is necessary that the least possible water should be used. The muriatic or sulphuric acids may also be employed to separate the tannin from the gallic acid; with either of them the tannin forms a thick pitchy substance no longer soluble in water; and the acid may be detached from the tannin by the addition of the alkali.—These remarks on tannin lead to some observations on the theory of the formation of ink. M. *Proust* considers this substance, according to the way in which it is usually composed, as consisting of the solution of the tannate and gallate of iron in the sulphuric acid: but he seems to prefer an ink formed by dissolving the oxyd of iron in the infusion of galls, to be made in the common manner by the sulphat of iron. The iron, he conceives, always exists in ink in the state of the red oxyd.

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In

In order to ascertain the proportion of sugar in the beet, a quantity of the roots was cut into small pieces, and digested for some time in alcohol; the latter being evaporated, the sugar was formed into a crystallized mass, while a substance like melasses was left behind. The proportion of sugar obtained was very considerable: but a process, in which a large quantity of alcohol is employed, could never be recommended as an œconomical method of forming sugar. The plan adopted by M. *Achard* was to boil the roots, then to break them down into a pulp, and afterward to successively strain and evaporate until all the sugar was separated. The committee imitated this process, and obtained a quantity of good sugar, but less in proportion to the weight of the roots employed than by the former method with alcohol. They also found that the beet sugar, by being refined, lost one-sixth more than the sugar from the cane. They tried a number of experiments with a view to the improvement of *Achard*'s process; especially with the intention of separating from the juice a mucous substance, which seemed to be mixed with it, and to prevent its crystallization: but they were not successful; and the only suggestion which they offer is that the root should not be boiled, but should be rasped down into a kind of pulp. They conclude by endeavouring to form an estimate of the expense at which sugar could be furnished from the beet root; and after having made the necessary allowance, it appears to be somewhat more than the price at which common sugar is usually sold in France. They remark, however, that possibly by culture the juice of the Beet might be rendered more abundant in its saccharine impregnation.

Report on the mode of escaping the Small Pox by the Vaccine Inoculation. By M. HALLÉ.—This author traces the history of vaccination, from its first discovery by Jenner to its general adoption in France; he describes the appearance and progress of the pustules; and he relates at some length the trials that were instituted to ascertain its preservative power. He afterward notices those circumstances which have produced a want of success in the operation; which he reduces to three heads; first, when the pustule produced does not exhibit the characters of the true disease; secondly, when deseases have succeeded which have been thought to be the small pox, but were not so in reality; and lastly, when the small pox has been developed at the same time with the vaccine, in consequence of the patient having been previously exposed to the contagion. The paper contains much useful matter: but the subject has been so fully discussed in this country, and is so generally understood, that we shall not dwell on it.

MEMOIRS.—*Second Memoir on the Physical Structure of the Hill of Montmartre, and other corresponding hills.* By M. DESMAREST.—The quarry of Montmartre exhibits a great number of regular, prismatic strata of the gypseous or marley earths, which the author here describes with considerable minuteness. In a former memoir, he had explained his ideas respecting the manner of their formation by gradual subsidence; and he endeavours to shew that the actual appearances correspond with his hypothesis. The English reader will be somewhat amused, and probably puzzled, with the names given by the workmen to the different layers; many of which bear but a very remote resemblance to the objects from which they have received their denominations.

Second Memoir on the Anomaly which takes place in the change of bases of two Salts by lowering the temperature. By M. GUYTON.—It had been observed by *Scheele* that, when the solutions of the sulphat of soda and the muriat of magnesia were mixed together at an ordinary temperature, no particular effect ensued: but that, if the mixture was cooled below the freezing point, a mutual decomposition took place, and the new compounds remained permanent, although the temperature was again elevated; and there are other salts which exhibit the same phænomena. The effect is obviously produced by the extrication of caloric; it has been ascribed to the expansive force of freezing water: but this supposition cannot be admitted, because the decompostion takes place before the freezing commences, and in course before the change of bulk is produced. M. GUYTON endeavours to explain the effect by supposing that, in consequence of the passage of the caloric out of each molecule of salt, a motion is produced; and the external parts, which first become cooled, not exercising so much pressure on the internal, leave them to form new compounds; when, as in the case before us, the quiescent and divellent affinities were previously almost exactly balanced.

Memoir on the method of preparing Morocco Leather at Fez and Tetuan. By M. BROUSSONET.—This substance is formed from the skins of goats; and the best kind is manufactured at Fez. Before the skins undergo the operation of tanning, they are stained with cochineal and alum. The tan is procured from the bark of a native tree, the botanical characters of which do not appear to be accurately ascertained. One part of the process consists in keeping the skins immersed for some time in water, with a quantity of unripe figs. The yellow morocco is dyed with the pomegranate rind and alum.

On the Decomposition of the calcareous Marine Salts, by means of lime, fixed alkali, and volatile alkali. By M. BAUMÉ.—There

appears

appears to us very considerable confusion in this paper, arising probably in part from a want of precision in the terms employed. The author, however, seems to entertain very peculiar opinions respecting the nature of the earthy bodies;—if we are not deceived in his meaning, he affirms that they may be converted into each other, both by the gradual operation of time and by the process of calcination.

Experiments on a viscid substance which collects on the branches of the Robinia Viscosa. By M. VAUQUELIN.—This substance was found not to be affected either by water or by alcohol, but to be easily soluble in ether. From a consideration of its properties, the author concludes that it differs in some respects from any vegetable substance hitherto examined. In the two next memoirs, we have an account of the plant from which this substance is procured; the first by M. CELS, the second by M. VENTENAT.

Reflections on a disease of Rye, and the dreadful destruction of Trees. By M. ROUGIER LABERGERIE.—In the disease which is here considered, parts of the plant become of a red colour; which is imagined by the author to be produced by cold winds coming on the plants when nearly in blossom, after a moist or foggy spring. He describes the effects of the disease at length, and supposes that it may be in some measure obviated by sowing the land, which is exposed to the north-east, later than is now usually done; and by forming a shelter for it by hedges or plantations. He speaks of the great destruction which the woods of France have lately undergone from various causes, principally depending on the events of the revolution; and he earnestly calls on the government to endeavour to remedy the grievance.

Memoir on the cultivation and œconomical uses of the Date-bearing Palm. By M. DESFONTAINES.—We have here a long and (as far as we can judge) an accurate description of the properties, culture, and uses of this plant; which, in the number of people to whom it affords nourishment, may vie with any of the corn-bearing tribes.

Reflections on the decomposition of the Muriat of Soda by the Oxyd of Lead. By M. VAUQUELIN.—The fact that common salt may be decomposed by the oxyd of lead, its acid being united to the lead, while the soda is disengaged in a state of purity, has been long known, but has not been very satisfactorily explained. The present author, by carefully examining the results of the operation in its different stages, and after its termination, concludes that the effect is produced in consequence of the affinity of the muriat of lead for an excess of oxyd; this excess of oxyd also rendering the compound insoluble in water,

and

and giving to it the fine yellow colour. Although it be true, however, that a muriat of lead with an excess of oxyd is formed, and that it possesses the properties here ascribed to it, we have some doubt how far it can be supposed to be instrumental in effecting the decomposition.

Experiments on the Oxyds of Lead, especially the Brown Oxyd. By the same.—This oxyd is formed by the action of the nitric acid on minium, or by exposing white lead to the oxygenated muriatic acid gas. The properties of the substance are detailed, and we have some experiments to determine the quantity of oxygen in this and the other oxyds of lead. M. VAUQUELIN thinks that *Bergmann* and *Klaproth* have estimated the quantity of oxygen in white lead too highly, and that it contains only 7 per cent.; the oxygen in the red he calculates at 9; and that in the brown oxyd at 21 per cent.

The next memoir, by M. VILLARS, gives an account of *some specimens of Fossil Wood, larch, birch, and aspin, found in the mountains of Lans, at a great elevation.*—It appears from their position that these substances could not have been transported to the place in question, and yet there are no woods now found nearly so high. Hence it is rendered probable that the mountains must at some period have been warmer than they are at present; a circumstance which the author principally ascribes to their having been formerly much more covered with forests. The wood was found imbedded in peat; which, together with the low temperature, was probably the cause of its long preservation.

Extract from a Memoir on the Marine of Venice. By M. FORFEIT.—This very long paper contains some curious and interesting matter, but we think that it is not of a nature exactly suited to the collection in which it is inserted. It gives a very particular account of the geographical situation of Venice, its marshy islands or lagunes, its canals, the method which is adopted for preserving them in order, the arsenal, the military and civil establishment for the marine, the management of the forests, and the maritime festivals. On each of these topics, the author dwells with much minuteness.

Memoir on the application of the Steam Engine to the drawing of Coals from the Pits. By M. PERIER.—The object of this paper is sufficiently expressed in the title. In order to accomplish it, the author proposes a piece of mechanism, by which, whenever the cylinder is stopped, its motion will be reversed; and in this manner the buckets will be kept alternately ascending and descending, as in the usual way when horses are employed.

On a method for superseding the operation of amputating the Arm at the Shoulder Joint. By M. SABATIER.—The author observes that, where the head of the humerus has been fractured,

or otherwise injured by any accidental circumstance, amputation has been rendered unnecessary by extracting the broken pieces of bone. This plan, however, cannot be adopted where the whole bone is in a state of disease: but in this case he thinks that amputation is not requisite; and he grounds his opinion on some instances in which a considerable part of the humerus has been removed, and the limb has recovered in a great measure its former motion. The only cases, in which he considers amputation at the shoulder to be necessary, are a complete sphacelus of the arm, and a carious state of the whole or the greatest part of the bone. He might have added those instances of very extensive injury to the arm, in which the whole limb is crushed or shattered; as in cases of gun-shot wounds, or of the arm being entangled in heavy machinery.

Notice respecting Uranite, and its discovery in France. By M. LÉLIEVRE.—As this mineral had not before been found out of Germany, the principal object of the present paper is to give an account of its discovery in one of the departments of France.

Memoir on the Red Tinge which the Snow sometimes exhibits on high mountains. By M. RAMOND.—*Saussure* first noticed this phænomenon, but was unable satisfactorily to account for it; he was, however, inclined to think that it depended on the farina of some cryptogameous plant. The author of the memorial before us has lately met with the same appearance in the Pyrenees; and by an attentive examination he has discovered it to be produced by the decomposition of a micaceous rock, the small particles of which are carried by the winds over the snow, and cause this red appearance.

Description of the process of fusing the Silver Ore at Allemont. By M. SCHREIBER.—This paper contains a minute detail of the operation, which will no doubt be useful and interesting to the manufacturer, but scarcely to the general reader.

Notice concerning the reduction of the muriat of Silver by the contact of Iron. By M. SAGE.—The writer here relates an instance in which this decomposition occurred in consequence of the two substances being accidentally placed in contact.

The physical memoirs contained in this volume, as the reader must have perceived, though many of them furnish useful information, are not of that importance which we have observed on former occasions. We think, indeed, that they afford rather an unfavourable specimen of the state of science in France; since we cannot but regard the National Institute as the grand depositary of all the discoveries and improvements which are produced in that country.—We reserve for another article the consideration of the volume relative to *Literature and the Arts.*

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Bos.

ART. II. *Histoire de la Medecine Clinique*, &c.; *i. e.* A History of Clinical Medicine, from its origin to the present time; with important inquiries respecting the existence, nature, and communication of Syphilitic Diseases in Pregnant Women, in Newly-born Infants, and in Nurses. By P. A. O. MAHON, M. D. &c. &c. Also the manner of treating Syphilitic Complaints in Pregnant Women, Infants, and Nurses. By LOUIS LA MAUVE, M. D. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 520. Paris, 1804. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 8s. sewed.

THE deceased author of this volume is already known to the world by his treatise on Legal Medicine, published about three years ago*, which indicated a considerable share of learning and ability; and his reputation will not be diminished by the production now before us. It consists of two parts, a history of Medicine, from the earliest period to the middle of the last century, and a treatise on the Venereal Disease, as it exists in newly-born Children.

The history of Medicine is divided into five chapters, corresponding with the five most remarkable epochs of the science. The first comprehends the period from the origin of Medicine to the children of Hippocrates, extending from the fabulous ages to the 37th century: the second brings us down to Galen, i. e. from the 37th century to the 41st., or the second of the Christian era, inclusive: the third, from Galen to the revival of letters, extends from the second to the fifteenth century of the Christian era, inclusive: the fourth details the history of the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries; and the fifth and last epoch contains the account of the eighteenth century.

As to the early part of the history of this science, it presents little that can interest the well-informed reader. The first traces of it, on which we can place any dependence, are to be found among the Egyptians; whence it was transplanted, with the rest of their knowlege, to the propitious soil of Greece. It is useless to inquire who was the inventor of Medicine; since it is an art which gradually rose out of the necessities of mankind, of which even the earliest periods of society and the most barbarous people exhibit some indications, however extravagant or inefficient. Over this part of the subject, the author judiciously passes with rapidity, and brings us to the time at which the genius of Hippocrates first reduced Medicine to the form of a science, and established it on the basis of reason and experience. M. MAHON presents us with a detailed and perspicuous account of the doctrines of this distinguished philosopher, of his hypotheses respecting the constitution of the

* See Review Vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 507.

human body, of the opinions which he entertained respecting the most important diseases, and of the practice which he pursued in their treatment.

He commences with an exposition of the doctrine of Hippocrates with regard to fever; which introduces a view of his ideas concerning the humors of the body; their coction in the state of health, and the defect of this operation in disease; the phænomena of the different secretions, on which he built so much of his practice and prognosis; and the disputed question of the critical days. As to the opinions themselves, it is not our business to criticize them: but M. MAHON's account of them appears to us correct and perspicuous, considerably minute, yet not unnecessarily protracted.

In the same style, the author pursues his statement of the practice of Hippocrates in fever; giving an account of the scrupulous attention which he paid to the regimen of his patients, the extensive employment of his ptisan, the effects which he expected to result from its use, (and which in the present day we cannot but consider as exaggerated,) his theoretical objections to cold water as a beverage in fever, his singular or rather fanciful notions of the effects of his oxymel and hydromel, and the precise directions which he laid down respecting the employment of bleeding and other evacuations. After a view of the doctrines and opinions of this great man relative to the other diseases which are treated in his work, M. MAHON enters into a detail of the art which Hippocrates had acquired in prognosticating the event of diseases; and which, as it appears, 'he possessed in a degree to which few of his successors have attained.' The account of this antient and celebrated physician concludes with an eulogy, in which we believe our readers will, for the most part, be disposed to acquiesce:

'Such is the summary of the Clinical system of Hippocrates; a system in which, after two thousand years of labor, we have only been able to discover some faults in the detail; an experimental system, admirable for the genius which united its different parts, and the relations of which physicians alone can appreciate, through the disjointed fragments which compose the immortal works of this antient Greek: a system forgotten by the vulgar, but verified at all times and in all countries; for which the Eastern adage seems to have been formed, "*The arts may all be the work of men, but Medicine appears to have proceeded from the hands of the Gods.*" But probably this language will appear dictated by enthusiasm; let us then search for the praises of Hippocrates in the history of his successors.'

When we have been contemplating the great advances of Medicine while directed by the genius of Hippocrates, it is melancholy to observe that, after his death, so far from proceeding

ceeding in the same course, it even became retrograde. The tendency which mankind have at all times possessed, to search into the causes of the events which surround them, is peculiarly conspicuous in this science; and, by withdrawing the attention from the observance of facts, it has very materially retarded the progress of medical knowlege. Plato and Aristotle, notwithstanding the celebrity of their names, must be regarded as among the first corrupters of this branch of science; since, not contented with extending and correcting the observations of their predecessors, 'they invented systems which were more fatal to true knowlege than the ravages of the Goths and Saracens. Plato changed natural philosophy, and the study of science, into metaphysical and chimerical subtilties; Aristotle formed them into a scholastic jargon, full of syllogisms, captious theses, and logical chicanery. Their systems became not only fashionable in Greece, but reigned despotically at Rome, and in the dark ages of Gothic, Arabian, and Ecclesiastical barbarity: they mixed themselves with all the different systems of literature, and prevented men from pursuing the only certain road to science, viz. experiment and observation.'

From this period, medicine presents us with little more than a series of hypotheses and conjectures; with the singularity of which we might be amused, were we not led to reflect on the fatal influence which they exercised over the practice of its professors. Different sects arose, each vehement in the defence of its peculiar tenets, and each equally remote from truth and nature. In this state, Medicine continued among the Greeks; until, on the decline of their power, it passed over, with the other arts and sciences, into the Roman republic. The Romans, in the early part of their history, systematically despised all philosophical pursuits, and appear to have treated Grecian medicine with peculiar contempt; so that, at the time when their political power had reached its acmé, this science still remained in its most barbarous state; and it was not until their empire had manifested symptoms of decay, that medicine was rescued from its abject condition by the writings of Celsus. M. MAHON lays before us a view of the works of this distinguished physician, detailed in his usual style of perspicuity; and he institutes a comparison between the practice of Hippocrates and that of Celsus, in the cure of fever; from which we learn that, if the latter in some respects falls short of the sagacity of his great master, he had the wisdom to discard those hypothetical doctrines of coction and crises, which had been laid down by the former.

The writings of Celsus seem, however, to have made but little impression on the general practice of medicine at Rome, and it had quickly relapsed into its former state, when Galen appeared; who, if not the greatest of physicians, was at least the one whose docrines obtained the most universal and lasting sway over the minds of his successors. He professed to illustrate and confirm the leading tenets of Hippocrates: but he added so much original hypothesis, as almost to overwhelm the simple system of his master by his multifarious appendages. His voluminous works treat on almost every subject connected with the science of Medicine; and his speculations are so abstruse and complicated, as to render it impossible to follow him through all his intricacies in the short compass of the present work. M. MAHON appears, however, to have selected with judgment the leading points of doctrine, and to have stated them in a clear and intelligible manner.

Chapter 3d. contains an account of the Alexandrian school, in which the science of Medicine flourished after the decay of the Roman empire, until the capture of this city by the Saracens; and we are afterward furnished with a view of the progress which it made among the Arabians, at a time when Europe was involved in ignorance and barbarity.

About the termination of the 14th century, a taste for science began to revive, after a long interval of perfect apathy; and the favourable impulse given to the human mind was felt by Medicine, as well as by the other branches of natural philosophy. In his 4th chapter, the author traces in an interesting manner the gradual developement of medical science in the different parts of Europe, and particularly in France, where it appears to have been studied with great assiduity. He introduces an account of the excentricities of Paracelsus, and his followers, the chemical physicians; of the metaphysical hypothesis of Stahl; and of the learned, though misplaced labours of the mathematical physiologists:—a sect which seems to have been principally of English growth. Thus circumstanced was the science, rather encumbred than illustrated by the application of different kinds of learning, and still under the trammels of the Galenic doctrines, when the illustrious Sydenham arose; one of those men, says the author, '*dont Nature est avare.*' He bestows on our countryman the tribute of applause to which he is so justly intitled, and draws a view of his peculiar tenets. He then notices the favourable effects which were produced on the science of medicine by the philosophical labours of Boyle and Bacon, and concludes the chapter by an account of the singular aberration of the human judgment which

which took place with respect to the supposed medical virtues of magnetism.

The 5th chapter professes to bring down the history of medicine to the present period, but, as we are informed by the editor, was left imperfect. It contains, however, an ample account of the doctrines of Boerhaave, and the learned labours of his numerous pupils.

We have perused this treatise with interest and satisfaction. It is indeed rather to be considered as a judicious sketch than an elaborate history, but it contains a large portion of information, well selected and expressed. Whether M. MAHON had recourse to the original authorities, or whether he derived his materials from other works of a similar kind, we are not able to decide. He frequently refers to Le Clerc and Freind, but he does not appear to have borrowed from either of them in an unreasonable degree. We must express our regret at the total want of references to the authors whose opinions he details; and we shall also point out another defect, which, though not of the first magnitude, is still too weighty to be overlooked; we refer to the frequent inaccuracy in the spelling of proper names. Among the moderns, and particularly the English, such gross mistakes occur, that we were sometimes at a loss to recognize our most familar acquaintance.

The second treatise in this volume contains researches concerning the existence, nature, and communication of syphilitic diseases in pregnant women, in infants, and in nurses; which M. MAHON commences by giving a full view of the opinions that have been entertained by the different authors who have written on this subject. The doctrines of Mr. Hunter, both on account of their singularity, and from the respect due to so eminent an authority, are discussed with considerable minuteness; and all the objections that have been urged against the commonly received opinions, either by himself or by those who have adopted his ideas, are individually combated. The author examines at full length the cases brought forwards by Mr. Hunter in support of his peculiar hypothesis, and deems himself warranted in deducing from them a different and indeed opposite conclusion. His method of reasoning appears to us candid and judicious; and though he dissents from Mr. Hunter so materially, he every where speaks of him with the highest respect. The practical part of this treatise, which was left unfinished in consequence of the premature death of M. MAHON, has been added by M. LA MAUVE.

Bos.

ART. III. *Principes Fondamentaux de l'Equilibre et du Mouvement*, &c. *i. e.* Fundamental Principles of Equilibrium and Motion. By L. N. CARNOT; of the National Institute of France, of the Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Literature at Dijon, &c. 8vo. Paris. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 6s. sewed.

AN edition of this work first made its appearance in 1786, under the title of *Essai sur les Machines en général*, and was printed at Dijon, when its author was an officer under the French Monarchy. The new impression, now on our table, is more clear and particular than the former, is more skilfully arranged, and contains some new matter: but, even with its present alterations and elucidations, it will perhaps, in various instances, defy the comprehension of many mathematical students. It is indeed less abstruse and perplexed than the works of *La Place* and *La Grange*, but it is too general in its formulas and principles, and too barren of examples and illustrations.

In the *Essai sur les Machines*, &c. M. CARNOT called the attention of Mathematicians to what he termed his *geometrical movements*; geometrical, because they can be determined by the aid of geometry solely, and are entirely independent of the rules of Dynamics. These movements in no respect alter the mutual action of bodies, and depend on the manner by which the several parts of the system are connected.—In the former edition, as well as in the present, the author establishes his positions by many reasonings and examples. If two bodies, *A.* and *B.* hang over a pully, and a motion be communicated, such that *A.* shall descend through a space equal to that through which *B.* ascends, then is such motion, according to the definition and the author's meaning, *geometrical*: it does not affect the mutual action of the bodies; a motion directly opposite may be impressed; and the motion, with regard to its quantity and direction, may be determined by geometry alone.

Since the time of *John Bernouilli*, *virtual velocities*, as they are called, have acted a grand part in the doctrine of equilibrium; and that great mathematician defines and employs them in his *Discours sur le Mouvement*. M. *La Grange* has since constructed his *Mecanique Analytique* on the principle of virtual velocities; and he has laid down formulas, adequate (according to the learned author) to the solution of all problems that can arise concerning the equilibrium of a system of bodies.

The geometrical movements of M. CARNOT are intended to supersede the virtual volocities of *La Grange;* and in his 9th theorem the author announces that '*tout mouvement virtuel dans un système quelconque de corps est necessairement géometrique :*' virtual

virtual movements and velocities being defined as *Bernouilli* and *La Grange* have defined them.

We have paid considerable attention to this doctrine of geometrical movements, intermediate between geometry and dynamics: but we do not perceive its great utility, nor indeed the necessity of such a doctrine. It is right, however, that the author should, on this subject, be suffered to speak for himself:

'By these explanations, it appears to me that the nature of those motions called geometrical may be clearly understood. The term applies without distinction to all kinds of bodies, hard, soft, elastic, solid or fluid. This denomination of geometrical motions is founded on the circumstance of such motions having no effect on the action, which may take place among the bodies of the system; such motions, therefore, are independent of the rules of Dynamics. For if we conceive a system, the parts of which are in simple repose and not in equilibrio;—that is to say, such that between the contiguous parts there is only a simple juxta-position, without shock, pressure, or any mutual action:—then, whatever geometrical motion be given to the system, such motion shall experience no alteration; since, if any portion whatever of this motion were destroyed, this could only happen because the bodies of the system could not take it, except by mutually disturbing each other; that is, except by exercising, the one on the other, a mutual action.—But this is contrary to the hypothesis, since it is the nature of these geometrical motions *not* to excite a mutual action between bodies. These motions, then, are absolutely unaffected by the rules of Dynamics. They depend solely on the conditions of the connexion between the parts of the system, and consequently can be determined by geometry alone; and for this reason I call them geometrical motions.

'The theory of geometrical movements is very important. It is, as I have observed elsewhere, (See *Geometry of Position*) a kind of intermediate science between ordinary geometry and mechanics. It is the theory of motions, which any system of bodies may take without reciprocally disturbing each other; without exercising, the one on the other, any action or re-action whatever. This science has never been specially treated: it is entirely to be created; and it merits, on account of its beauty as well as its utility, the attention of the learned. The great analytical difficulties, which occur in mechanics, and especially in hydraulics, have arisen because this science has not been established.'

Instead of virtual velocities, M. CARNOT employs (as we have observed) geometrical movements. In this respect, he does not differ much from M. *La Grange*, but more in the manner by which he obtains the fundamental equations that appertain to equilibrium and motion, and in which he describes their laws. On the principle of virtual velocities, M. *La Grange* lays down, as his fundamental equation, $Pdp+Qdq+Rdr$, &c. $=O$, the forces being P, Q, R, and dp, dq, dr, being the infinitesi-

mal spaces that represent the virtual velocities. M. CARNOT obtains what he calls his fundamental equations, which determine the laws of the motion of bodies, when the changes in such motions are finite and sudden; after which the equations for the motion of bodies, when the changes in such motion are gradual, are included in the original equations, or may be immediately deduced from them. Thus, if M be the mass of a body, U its loss of velocity, V the velocity after impact; then, S being the symbol for the sum, $S.MUV.\cos.V\wedge U=o$; cos. $V\wedge U$ meaning, according to a new notation of the author, the co-sine of the angle included between the directions of V and U.—This is the form for hard bodies changing their motions by sudden impulses or shocks. Suppose the change of motion to be gradual, and P to be an accelerating force, then if V be the velocity at the end of the first instant of time, and $V+dV$ at the end of the second, the forces destroyed $=dV-Pdt$, which is to be put for U in the equation $S.MUV=o$. Thence $S.MVdV-S.M.PV.dt=o$: or, in case of the directions of P and V being different, $S.UVdV-S.MVP.dt.\cos.P\wedge V=o$: or, since $Vdt=ds$ (ds the differential of the space,) $S.MVdV-S.M.Pds\cos.P\wedge V=o$.

This equation may, by the introduction of three rectangular co-ordinates, be easily translated into the equations which *La Place* has given in page 51 of his *Mécanique Céleste*, and *La Grange* in page 195 of his *Mécanique Analytique*.

The method of proving this fundamental equation, viz.

$$SMUV.\cos.V\wedge U=o,$$

$$\text{or } MUV\cos.V\wedge U+M'U'V'\cos.V''\wedge U'+\&c.=o,$$

differs from that which M. CARNOT has employed in his former work. We prefer the new mode of proof to the preceding, but we by no means approve the transition from this form to the formula for the motion of bodies changing their motion by insensible degrees. The connection is forced, instead of natural and obvious; and the author, for the sake of a specious generality, has made great sacrifices of simplicity, and indeed of exactness. He begins with the hypothesis of the impact of hard spherical bodies; thence he passes to the case of the communication of motion from one body to another, by means of intermediate bodies; and finally, all motion is supposed to be communicated by the fictitious interference of imaginary spherical bodies. There may be generality in this, but surely it is confusion. Many things may be connected together, but they are connected by means of a forced and unnatural alliance; and it is better, on the grounds of simplicity, of facility,

and

and of exactness, to keep separate those things which are dissimilar. Very few mathematicians have equalled *D'Alembert* in clearness and method; for he separated things as they are separated by nature, and by our notions. "*Les corps* (says he) *n'agissent les uns sur les autres que de trois manières differentes que nous soient connus: ou par* impulsion intermediate, *comme dans le choc ordinaire; ou par le moyen de quelque corps interposé entr' eux, et auquel ils sont attachés: ou enfin par une vertu d'attraction reciproque, comme sont dans le systéme Newtonien le soleil et les planètes.*" &c. *Dynamique*, p. 73.

The equation $S.MUV$ cos. $V \wedge U = o$ is, however, of great use; since it enables the author to demonstrate, very elegantly, the quantity of the destruction of the *vis viva* (*de perdition des forces vives*) that happens in the impact of hard bodies. Thus, suppose W to be the velocity before impact, V after impact, and U to be the velocity lost, then $W^2 = V^2 + U^2 + 2V.U.$ cos. $V \wedge U$. Consequently, $S.MW^2 = S.MV^2 + S.M.U^2 + 2SMVU.$cos.$V \wedge U$:

but, since $SMVU.$ cos. $V \wedge U = o$

$$S.MW^2 = S.MV^2 + SMU^2:$$

a theorem of great elegance, noticed by M. *La Grange* in his *Fonctions Analytiques*, and demonstrated by that mathematician in a different manner.

In bodies perfectly elastic, $SMW^2 = SMV$; that is, in the impact of such bodies, the law called *Conservatio Virium Vivarum* holds place, as it does in a system of bodies changing their motions by insensible degrees. The mode by which M. CARNOT proves this theorem does not please us; in fact, the method of demonstration is unsatifactory. We refer the mathematical reader to page 156.

We cannot dismiss this part of the subject without noticing what to us appears an error in M. CARNOT. At page 141, he says, '*le premier terme du second membre de la premiere Equation, exprime evidemment la quantité de mouvement imprimée à A par B, estimée dans la vitesse de A après le choc*, &c. The *premier terme du second membre*, &c. is, in fact, $A.U.V$ cos. $V \wedge U$, U being the velocity communicated by B to A, and V being A's velocity. Now this term is not the quantity of motion, either according to the usual and ordinary definitions, or according to the author's own definition.

The demonstration of the *Conservatio Virium Vivarum* is effected with great neatness by means of the author's form,

$$S.m\,Pds \text{ cos. } P \wedge ds - S.m\,VdV = o.$$

from which expression he deduces this theorem; that if K be the initial velocity, and U the velocity that would be generated

were

were the several parts of the system to move freely along the paths which they describe, acted on by the same moving force,

then $Sm V^2 = S.mU^2 + S.mK^2$

or, not using the symbol S,

$$mV^2 + m'V'^2 + m''V''^2 + \&c. = mU^2 + m'U'^2 + \&c. \left.\begin{array}{r} \\ \\ + mK^2 + m'K'^2 + \&c. \end{array}\right\}$$

The theory of the *Vires Vivæ* (a very important theory in practical mechanics) is due to *Leibnitz*: but it received improvement from *John Bernouilli*, who expressly treated of it in his *Discours sur le Mouvement;* and who, in other tracts, applied its principle with success to the solution of several difficult problems. He incurred, as well as *Leibnitz*, much unmerited opposition on account of this theory; and, which is remarkable, even in later times some mathematicians seem not to have distinctly understood its nature and utility.—In the *Mécanique Celeste* and *Analytique*, the differential equations which involve the laws of a body's motion are expressed by means of three rectangular co-ordinates; and M. CARNOT, by the use of an easy theorem, shews how his equations may be transformed into equations similar to those that are employed by *La Grange* and *La Place*!

Towards the latter part of this work, we find several judicious and interesting remarks on the application of moving forces to machines. The author here mentions, but briefly, (and they deserve not a long consideration,) the disputes concerning the measure of the *force* of a body in motion. In mathematical controversies, as in others, ambiguous words and loose expressions are for ever setting snares to entrap our understandings. The *effect* of a power, or of a weight, what is it? By means of a lever, a weight W may be made to balance $2W$, $3W$, mW. It may then be said that the *effect* of a weight W is increased by the artifice of a lever, two-fold, three-fold, an hundred fold. Such language may be used in the case of one weight being in equilibrio with another weight: but if the weight W descends through a space S, what shall we say of the *effect* of this moving weight? If the effect be measured by the product of the mass and the space described, such effect can by no mechanical contrivance be increased, but must ever remain the same. If, in a state of equilibrium, W be made to balance $100W$, while the latter describes a space S, the former must describe a space equal to $100S$; so that, in every machine, the principle holds good, that what we gain in force we lose in time or in velocity.

'The advantage, (says M. CARNOT,) which results from machines, depends not on the circumstance of the production of great effects

effects with small means, but on that of affording us the power of selecting, among different means, that which may be called equal, or that which is most suitable to the existing circumstances. To force a weight *P* to ascend to a proposed height,—a spring to contract itself through a certain space,—a body to take by insensible degrees a given motion,—or finally any other agent whatever to absorb a given moment of activity;—it is necessary that the moving forces destined to this purpose should themselves consume a moment of activity equal to the former. The machine can be absolved from this law: but as this moment results from several terms or factors, it may be made to vary at pleasure, by diminishing the force at the expence of the time, or the velocity at the expence of the force: or, in employing two or more forces instead of one:—a circumstance, which supplies an infinitude of resources for the production of the necessary moment of activity. Whatever be done, it is necessary that these means should be equal; that is to say, that the moment of activity consumed by the soliciting forces be equal to the *effect*, or the moment absorbed in the same time by the resisting forces.

'These reflections should seem sufficient to undeceive those who think that, with machines furnished with levers mysteriously arranged, we may enable an agent, be it ever so feeble, to produce the greatest effects. The error proceeds from this, that we are persuaded that it is possible to apply to machines in motion what is only true for a case of equilibrium: and because a small power, for example, may be made to balance a great weight, many persons are inclined to believe that it may be also made to elevate the weight as quickly as we please: but this is a great mistake, since, in order to succeed, it is necessary that the agent procure for itself a velocity above its faculties; or which at least would cause it to lose a part of its effect on the machine, so much the greater, the more quickly it were obliged to move. Hence the reason why the effect of machines in motion is always so limited, that it can never surpass the moment of activity consumed by the agent which produces it.'

The author makes several other judicious remarks on the same subject; and he then turns his attention, although in a small degree only, to a very interesting inquiry, namely, the method of œconomizing the action of men and animals. On this occasion, he controverts (as M. *Coulomb* had done before him,) an opinion of *Daniel Bernouilli*, that the fatigue experienced is always proportionate to the quantity of action. The memoir of M. *Coulomb* has been already noticed by us, as containing many interesting experiments and discussions*.

After having ingeniously commented on the saying attributed to Archimedes, (*da mihi punctum*, &c.) M. CARNOT proceeds to ask:

* See Rev. Vol. xxxv. p. 539. *N. S.*

'What is the true and legitimate object of machines in motion? We have already said, it is that of procuring the power of varying at will the terms of the quantity FVT (F=force, V=velocity, T=time), or the moment of activity that must be consumed by the moving forces. If the time be precious, so that it is necessary that the effect shall be produced very quickly, and we have a force of great intensity but of small velocity only, it will be possible to find a machine that shall supply, by the intensity of its force, the necessary velocity. If, on the contrary, we have only a feeble power at our disposal, but a power capable of a great velocity, we shall be enabled to imagine a machine with which the agent shall be capable of compensating by velocity for its deficiency of force. Finally, if the power be endowed neither with great intensity nor with great velocity, we shall be able, with an appropriate machine, to produce the desired effect: but then we must infallibly employ more time. Since, in fine, we cannot migrate out of this circle, it is absolutely necessary that the product FVT be always equal to the effect which we wish to produce; and it is in this precisely that consists the principle so celebrated and important, that, in machines in motion, what is gained in force is always lost in time or in velocity.'

We shall finish our extracts with one more passage, which contains very judicious reflections; and which we select principally because, on the subject of it, some of our own mathematicians seem not sufficiently clear and precise.

'The quantity PH, (P a weight, H the space described,) which we have previously considered as the effect capable of producing other effects, is what we have called a latent *vis viva:* for, if we call M the mass of the weight P, and V the velocity due to the height H, we shall have $PH=\frac{1}{2}MV^2$.

'It is the same with every other effect produced by moving forces applied to a machine. We may always compare that effect to a weight to be elevated to a certain height, and consequently to a *force vive*, real or latent. Thus for example, to compress a spring through a given space,—to compress a given quantity of air, so as to occupy such or such capacity,—to reduce into flour a certain quantity of grain,—to draw a chariot, of a given weight, from one given place to another, on a road, the roughness of which is also stated—to make an excavation of a given extent, by throwing up the soil in a given place,—to make a given void in water to a given depth,—to excite in a body or in a system of bodies a given motion,—all these are effects which may be estimated in terms of *forces vives:* but it is by effects of this kind, that we must judge of the ability of moving forces, such as men, streams of water, or impulses of wind; and hence the reason why several learned men, following *Leibnitz*'s opinion, have thought that the force of bodies in motion ought to be estimated differently from the force of bodies at rest. They have judged that the force of the latter was simply the product of their mass and of their tendency to motion; while that of the others ought to be estimated by the product of the mass and the squares of the velocities. It is clear, as we have already observed, that all this is arbitrary

bitrary, and that we shall always arrive at the same results, provided that we reason conformably to the definitions which we lay down.

'But whatever are the denominations that we adopt, the consideration of what are called *forces vives* must always be very important in the theory of machines in motion; since it is that theory which is adapted to appreciate the labour of men and animals, as well as of other agents that may be compared to them.'

This work of M. CARNOT is by no means of a *mediocre* character; and it intitles him to more credit than his late ponderous quarto on the *Geometry of Position:* but in that, as well as in the present volume, we notice a tendency to multiply denominations. 'Moment of activity consumed, moment of activity absorbed,' &c. terms such as these occur,—not vaguely, for the author defines them, but perhaps unnecessarily, since no new truth results from their employment; nor are laws and results more clearly or concisely expressed by them. In this respect, the author falls into the error which he blames in *Maupertuis* and others, that of elevating into active and efficient causes the simple results of calculation, or the formulas which express certain laws in Dynamics.

M. CARNOT did not intend this publication, as he himself declares, to be a treatise on mechanics: but we wish that he had made it such a treatise; and with small additional trouble he might have so done. As it stands now, it is difficult to characterize it, or to state its precise and specific utility. Many parts are purely elementary, containing discussions, and the testimonies of experiment and observation with regard to the laws of motion: but then between these discussions and the other parts of the work, we find an abrupt and wide interval, which no one, without much previous knowlege, and a familiarity with the very subjects that are treated, can properly fill.

On the whole, this treatise may be pronounced to be an able performance. If it cannot be of great use to the young student, the inquisitive and learned mathematician will find in it many things which will rouse his attention, and reward him for the study of its pages.

R.W.

ART. IV. *Traité de Mécanique Celeste,* &c. *i. e.* A Treatise on Celestial Mechanics. By M. LA PLACE, Chancellor of the Conservative Senate, Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour, Member of the Institute, &c. Vol. IV*. 4to. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe, London.

THE former volumes of this publication having contained the theories of the planets and of the moon, the object of the

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* See Rev. Vol. xl. N. S. p. 491.

present

present is the theory of the satellites and of the comets; and of the satellites, those of Jupiter are undoubtedly the most interesting. Observations on these moons have only been made about two centuries: but, in this short interval, they present, by the quickness of their revolutions, all those great changes which time developes only with extreme slowness in the planetary system, of which the system of satellites is the image. Their principal inequalities are known from their frequent eclipses, with a precision which had never been obtained from the observed elongations of these stars from Jupiter. In order to give the theory of these inequalities, M. La Place expands the differential equations of their motions. They differ little from those of the planets and of the moon: yet the relations that subsist between the mean motions of the first three satellites of Jupiter cause, in some of these inequalities, values that have considerable influence on the whole of their theory. These motions are nearly in a sub-duplicate progression; and thence several very sensible inequalities result, of which the periods, differing from each other, are in the eclipses transformed into one alone of 437. 659. days. Bradley first remarked this period, in the return of the eclipses of the first and second satellite. *Wargentin* afterward clearly laid down the law of the inequalities on which it depends; and of which he attributed the cause to the mutual action of the first three satellites: without, however, subjecting it to analysis, which then was not in a sufficient state of advancement for this object. Mathematicians having since improved it, and having applied it to the perturbations of Jupiter's satellites, these inequalities first presented themselves to their researches, as they were first offered to observers. In the present volume, these inequalities are developed with all the nicety that their importance demands. With regard to Saturn's satellites, the difficulty of observation renders their theory so imperfect, that we scarcely know with any precision their revolutions, and their mean distances from that planet: it is therefore useless at present to consider their inequalities. In the position of their orbits, however, a remarkable phænomenon is observable. The orbits of the first six satellites appear to be in the plane of the ring, while that of the seventh is sensibly out of the plane. It is no slight nor easy employment for the physical astronomer, to account for this phænomenon by the principles and formulas of celestial mechanics.

Less is known of the satellites of Jupiter than of those of Saturn. It appears from the observations of Herschell, that they all move in the same plane, nearly perpendicular to that of the planet's orbit; a circumstance which clearly points out a like position

position in the plane of his equator. M. La Place shews that oblateness of the planet, combined with the action of the satellites, is able to maintain their different orbits nearly in the same plane.

In the ninth book, the author treats of the perturbations of the comets. The great excentricities and inclinations of their orbits prevent us from applying to these stars the formulas which relate to planets and satellites. In the present state of analysis, it is not possible to represent their motions by analytical expressions which embrace an indefinite number of revolutions; and there is no other mode of determining them, than by parts, and by the method of quadratures. *La Grange* has invented the most simple method, which consists in regarding the orbit of the comet as an ellipse incessantly variable: each elliptic element is then expressed by the integral of a differential function; and there are several methods of approximating to this integral. M. La Place exhibits these differential functions under their most commodious forms, and gives an exact method of integrating them by approximation.

Book the tenth discusses several interesting points relative to the system of the world. The theory of refraction, so important in astronomical observations, is here profoundly treated; and experience and hypothesis are skilfully united, and made to co-operate. Subsequent chapters are allotted to the extinction of the light of the stars in the atmosphere, and of the sun's atmosphere; to the measuring of heights by means of the barometer; to the fall of bodies from great heights; to certain cases, in which the motion of several attracting bodies may be rigorously obtained; to the alteration which might be occasioned in the motion of planets and comets by the resistance of the media which they traverse, and by the successive transmission of gravity; and the last chapter treats on the masses of the planets and the satellites.

All that remains for the completion of this undertaking,—one of the most arduous and important, and, after the *Principia* of Newton, the most ennobling and illustrious, that was ever conceived and carried into effect,—is an historical notice of the labours of astronomers, and of those mathematicians who have written on the system of the world:—such notice is destined for the eleventh and last book.

R. W.

ART. V. *Memorial Topographique*, &c. *i. e.* A Topographical and Military Memorial, drawn up at the General *Dépôt* of War; and printed by order of the Minister. No. 6. *Historical.* 4th Trimestre, 11th Year. 8vo. pp. 250. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s.

So great is the solicitude of the French to obtain that species of information which tends to promote their success in war, that it manifest itself on every occasion. They instruct their agents and commissioners to make surveys of those countries into which they are admitted; in order that, whenever they assume an hostile attitude, they may know the most vulnerable part of the country which they meditate to invade. Their topography is directed to military plans and operations, and is not confined to the discriminating aspect and features of a district. "War is indeed their business," and every thing seems to be made subservient to this destructive pursuit. While the picturesque and idle traveller is absorbed in the admiration of the beauties and sublimities of nature, the Frenchman contemplates them with the eye of an engineer; and he regards torrents and lakes, mountains, rocks, and gorges, only as the materials of fortification. These remarks are strikingly exemplified in the volume before us; forming a portion of a work, the whole of which we have not seen; and which we should not notice in this detached manner, did it not, for the most part, relate to a country which has been the scene of the late military operations between the Austrians and the French, and which is considered as the natural barrier of the states of Austria on the side of Italy, we mean the Tyrol. The author, who is an officer of the imperial corps of Genoa, mentions, in his introduction, the writers who have preceded him in giving accounts of this mountainous region; and among these he names M. *Albanis Beaumont* of Geneva, who traversed the Tyrol in 1786, in the suite of the late Duke of Gloucester, and published an account of it in English, in a large folio volume, with plates, intitled, "Travels through the Rhætian Alps*." The *carte* which M. *Beaumont* gave is a mere sketch, though it affords a clear idea of the positions of the principal mountains and glaciers, with the sources and directions of the rivers; and, being a cursory traveller, it was perhaps impossible for him to enter into so complete a detail of localities, as a person expressly employed in the business of making a topographical survey. This officer farther remarks that M. *Beaumont*'s 'views in *acqua tinta* are very interesting, if they are faithful:' but he who had been on the very spots on which M. *Beaumont* executed his drawings

* See Rev. Vol. xii. N. S. p. 303.

could

could have told us whether they *were* correct or not. We wish, for the purpose of promoting accuracy of design in picturesque tours prepared for the public, that the errors and plays of fancy in views given of particular places, in expensive publications, might be always pointed out by subsequent observers; since, without truth of pencil, the artist deceives when he professes to inform the eye. We do not suspect M. *Beaumont*, however, of a departure from the truth, and the above insinuation was unhandsome.

Before this writer enters on what he calls *Réconnaissances sur le Tyrol*, he presents us with some amusing prefatory matter respecting its physical circumstances, its inhabitants, and its antient and modern history.

'The antient castle of Tyrol, which stands near *Méran*, has given its name to the country in the centre of which it is situated, and which is bounded on the north by Bavaria, on the east by the bishopric of Saltzburg and part of Carinthia, on the south by the Austro-Venetian states and the kingdom of Italy, and on the west by the Grisons and the Voralberg. Its extent from east to west is one hundred leagues, and from north to south about sixty-five leagues.

'By its situation and its natural obstacles, this province might be considered as the salient bastion of the Austrian monarchy, of which the Italian *Adige* and the *Inn* of the plain are the curtains; the *Inn* of the mountains, the fosse; the Voralberg, the glacis; and *Lindau*, the advanced work.'

Our readers will learn, from this short extract, the character and extent of the country which is perhaps about to pass from the house of Austria; they may also collect from it the intentions of the French government; and they will perceive in it a justification of our remark concerning the author, that ideas of attack and defence are uppermost in his mind. Though, however, he is steady to his profession as a soldier, it is necessary for him to describe the natural features of the country, previously to his military surveys; and some of his accounts are curious. The subsequent relation respecting the *Glaciers* will not be deemed unworthy of notice:

'The *Glaciers* are known in the north of the Tyrol by the general name of *Ferner*, and in the south by that of *Vedretta*; denominations which correspond to that of *Gletscher* in Swisserland, and that of *Wadrez* in the Grisons. They receive, moreover, their particular name from the valley in which they are formed, or from the mountain (*glacière*) to which they belong. Such are the *Hochvernag-ferner*, the *Gerslar-ferner*, the *Schalfthaler-ferner*, &c.

'It is supposed, in the country, that the *glaciers*, however great in number or enormous in size, are not of an older date than the third century. The people here relate the same fables which prevail among the Swiss respecting their periodical mutations; and it is asserted that

they increase and diminish alternately in the course of seven years. This is certain, that they are subject to more violent changes than in Swisserland; and that their augmentation is more sensible; the space which the *Gurgler-ferner* now occupies, between the *Schwartzberg* and the *Rübel-berg*, was a pasture on which shepherds not long ago tended their flocks.

'It is in the gorge of the Œtz, and in its environs, that we meet with the most remarkable conglomeration of *glaciers;* and they are there so greatly multiplied, that to this part of the chain the name of *Grosse-Ferner* or *Great Glacier* is given. Some of them here undergo great alterations on the least change of temperature; at one time occupying the entire *gorge*, and at another even less than half of it. The mountain called *Neusberg*, which terminates the *Rofen-thal*, has two glaciers of this kind, the *Hochjock-ferner*, and the *Guslar-ferner*.

'The kind of arch composed of ice, from which a stream of water issues at the foot of every *glacier*, increases considerably during summer, and some of them become real bridges, which extend from one mountain to another, and on which travellers pass without danger, excepting when it rains.

'Sometimes, also, the surface of the *glacier* cracks perpendicularly, presenting a multitude of pyramids, the least solid of which breaks off and rolls with a great noise to the bottom of the *gorge*. These fragments, united by a new congelation, there increase, and form a dyke to the stream which their dissolution had increased.

'After this manner, the *glacier* of *Rofen-thal*, called *Rofnersée*, was formed in 1771. A stream issuing from *Hochjock ferner* fell into the *gorge* of *Rofen*; some blocks of ice were detached in the month of August, and so filled up the *gorge* as to make a dam across it: this stream became a lake, and soon afterward a *glacier*, which now covers twelve thousand metres of excellent pasturage.

'The inhabitants of these mountains remark that, when such *avalanches* descend from a single *glacier*, there is less reason to fear for the districts situated below it: but that, if two *glaciers* discharge themselves into the same bottom, a bank is very soon formed, and the new accretion of ice forces men and cattle to seek elsewhere for subsistence. Such accidents occnrred several times during the last age in the *gorge* of *Gurgler*.

'In general, we may observe that all these *glaciers* of recent formation obtain their increase from the month of October to that of June, a period at which they begin to thaw; then they form a multitude of cascades, presenting all that variety which is admired in Swiss scenery. Streams rushing from beneath vaults of ice, and swelled by tributary water-falls, sometimes become torrents which mark their course with devastation. When the southerly winds prevail for many successive days, the universal thaw seems to menace the vallies with a new deluge, mixed with sand, rocks, and ice.'

From this account, it appears that the *glaciers* of the Tyrol are likely to increase; because, when a certain body of ice is accumulated, it perpetuates itself, and grows rather than diminishes. If these mountains and fields of ice extend themselves

from time to time over valleys and pastures, the temperature of the Tyrol must gradually change for the worse; and it is worth while to consider how far these misfortunes can be resisted, if not removed, by human genius and industry. The climate of a country might be ameliorated by the exertions of its inhabitants; and it would be kind in the French philosophers, to assist the Tyrolese with their advice respecting the best mode of counteracting (and in some instances of conquering) these glacial evils. When the writer glances at the productions of this country, he remarks that the vine will not now ripen at the same elevation at which it formerly flourished. He mentions the *Inthal* as one of the largest, best cultivated, and most populous vallies of the Alps. In addition to corn, salt, wood, and game, which it yields in abundance, it produces hemp and hops; and by the help of the latter, we are told, the inhabitants contrive to manufacture a kind of beer as strong and as good as English *porter*. Thus they endeavour to console themselves for the loss of the juice of the grape.

Exploring these Alpine regions with no romantic prepossessions, the present topographer is not disposed to repeat those compliments to the noble character and simple manners of the Tyrolese, which some travellers have bestowed on them. He leaves it, he says, to the sentimentalist, to imagine pictures of virtue existing among the people inhabiting the mountains of the Tyrol, and speaks only the result of his observations.

'Age and hard labour soon change the beautiful figures which characterize mountaineers; and the constant use of the pipe gives a sharpness to the muscles of the face. They eat very amply; and adhering to the taste of their ancestors, they drink to excess whenever they have opportunity. The peasants in general are in comfortable circumstances, devotees even to superstition, and very reserved near the cities: they are warmly attached to their mountains, which they cultivate with unremitting industry. They so ardently detest being classed in the militia, that many, in order to avoid it, disgrace themselves by flight: but they willingly engage in the capitation.

'The peasants of the south, being more sober, are less devotees, less honest, and less frank: they are fond of having recourse to law, and their jealousies and revenge often furnish matter for criminal processes.'

We are informed, at the conclusion of the preface or introduction, that seasons, mountains, and rivers, present ineffectual obstacles to the French armies; that Austria has been indefatigable, since the peace of Luneville, in strengthening the natural defence of the Tyrolese frontier; and that a plan of this country has been executed on a large scale, to suit the topographical surveys of the acquisitions of the House of Austria in Poland and in Italy.

While the ministers of the Emperor Francis II. were occupied in schemes for rendering the passes of the Tyrol more formidable to an invading enemy, the Government of France was employed in examining the different places at which it was most accessible, and in considering the mode of overcoming the difficulties which it would oppose to an army. The *recollections* before us are intended as supplemental to the Memoirs which have formerly been composed on this subject; the author having examined its openings on every side, and minutely laid down the nature of every country which joins to the Tyrol, on the South and on the North, on the East and on the West. The state of the principal roads, the hours of march between the chief places, the natural and artificial obstacles, the chains and branches of the mountains, the course of the rivers, and the resourses which in a military view the country is capable of affording, are the subjects of detail: but it would be uninteresting minutely to follow the writer through his various researches, and tiresome to enumerate the numerous vallies, *gorges*, &c. which are here specified. We shall content ourselves with adding, as a specimen of this work, the account of the lake *Garda*, which borders on the Tyrol, and which is not so generally known as some other lakes in this region of the Continent.

'The lake *Garda* is about fifteen leagues long, and its mean breadth about three leagues. It is so much narrowed towards the upper part as to be scarcely 4000 metres or a league over; towards the middle, its width is double; and at the bottom it is four leagues wide. The head of the lake is shut in between *Monte Baldo* and the mountains of Bressan, which are cut perpendicularly from Gargano to Riva. The lower part is included between hills, to which learned Italians give the name of *Colli-Benacesi*. It receives the Sarca on the north; towards the west, the torrents of Ponal, Brasa, Lampion, and Toscolano; and on the east, the waters which run from Monte Baldo. The surface of the lake is broken by three islands, the Trimelone, Olivi, and Frati, and by the peninsula of Sermione, which projects from the middle of the lower side of the basin.

'Its waters being extremely limpid, we perceive at a great depth the stones at the bottom, and the plants which cover them: but its depth is so very unequal that its mean cannot be easily assigned. At a small distance from the banks, it measures almost every where many metres: but the deepest parts are towards the north. The Count *Bettoni*, cited by the Abbé *Volta*, according to soundings exactly taken, found 79, 124, 161, and in short 584 metres of water between Castelletto and Gargnano: but *Carli*, in his history of Verona, says that the same admeasurement taken by M. *Cocoli*, mathematician of Brescia, gave him only 179^{m} below Madona de Monte-Castello, and sixteen metres of the escarpment in the deepest place of

of the lake; while on approaching the middle of the lake, he found but 129^{m}.

'The water is very light, but it has rather a fishey taste. M. *Zeviani* says that it is very good to drink, boils easily, does not curdle soap, and boils vegetables perfectly well. At the commencement of the summer, the water rises, which the fishermen attribute to the plants that spring up from the bottom of the lake: but which it is more natural to assign to the melting of the snows, and the heavy rains which fall at that season. The navigation is then often dangerous. When the water sinks, marshes appear in certain places; the exhalations from which, by the action of the sun, render the air unhealthy.

'South and north winds prevail in the morning and in the evening, but the various directions of the *gorges* and vallies, which border on the lake, occasion currents of air, to which the inhabitants give names referring either to their effects or to the part of the shore from which they proceed. The *Vexentina* blows after changes of the weather, or when it becomes settled. The *Toscano* blows when the weather is about to change, and is often followed by a high wind. The names of these two refer to their direction; they are stormy, as is also that which blows from Garda, and is called *Spizzocher*, being often as tremendous as that from the north, but it is of short duration. The *Andro*, which blows from the side of Lonato, is little dangerous. Those of *Ponal* and *Navenne*, named from the places whence they proceed, are much to be feared in the summer season, taking the barks by surprize which sail in these directions: but these winds are not of long continuance. The *Ora* blows all the year, especially in April (Germinal) but it never disturbs the lake. The *Sovero* is the most furious, often violently agitating the whole mass of water; at which time, the lake presents the frightful appearance of a stormy sea. The vessels, which are overtaken by it, do not endeavour to resist it, and only think of shelter. These tempests commonly happen either in winter, when the snow is on the mountains; or in summer, when they become tremendous storms, which continue for two or three days. The appearance of the heavens indicates their approach.

'The commerce of the lake is considerable, and it would become more so if the Mincio were rendered navigable. At Torri, Garda, Limon, Torbole, Peschiera, and Riva, the fishery* is a very important object. The principal *entrepôt* or market is at Dezenzano: but there is another also at Torri. The people carry their fish to Venice, Milan, and even to Genoa; and every where it is much in request.

'On the eastern bank, the ports most frequented are those of Lafise, San Virgilio, and Malsonina: they are moreover the largest and most commodious. That of Torri is choaked up with sand, or at least subject to that inconvenience. Those of Bardolino and Brenzone are used only as ferries. That of Riva is the largest and the safest, and it is the *entrepôt* of the commerce of the Tyrol. Planks, framed timber, charcoal, &c. are sent from this point. Three fairs

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* Sardines, eels, trout, and carp are the fish which most abound. It is singular that in one part river fish are found, and in another those fish which belong to the sea.

are held in every year; and the merchandise of the fair of Botzen passes by Torbole and Salo, or by Dezenzano, into Bressan and the Milanese. The largest barks carry 600 myriagrammes, from which their size diminishes almost to that of a fisherman's boat,* able to carry only 125 myriagrammes, or 14 persons, with two or three watermen. When there is no wind, all the barks are rowed or towed along the shores: but they have a large square sail, and the largest have a rudder; the others are directed by an oar: none of them are decked. They never sail against the wind; and if, when they set out on a voyage, it blows rather briskly, they tack about. With a favourable wind, the largest barks make the most way, sailing nearly six miles in an hour; and a fishing boat, with four oars, can go four or five, if the wind be not contrary.'

This memorial terminates with an article on the *Voralberg*, (comprehending the seigniories of Bregentz, Feldkirch, Pludentz, and Hohen-Embs) copied from *l'Almanach du Tyrol* for the year 1805, which is a publication of more extent, and includes more general and appropriate information, than most works of this kind. It contains various historical extracts, statistical memoirs, pieces of poetry, and anecdotes of bravery and patriotism. It is, in short, particularly calculated to excite the enthusiasm, energy, and attachment of the Tyrolese to the House of Austria.

Subjoined to the survey of the Tyrol, is a second Extract from a military survey of the Black Forest; being a continuation of details published in a preceding number, and signed *Guilleminot*, formerly *chef de bataillon* to the *Etat Major* of the army. As, however, we have not seen the former part, we shall not plunge headlong into the recesses of this formidable forest.

Mo-y-

ART. VI. *Dictionnaire des Sciences Naturelles*, &c. *i. e.* A Dictionary of the Natural Sciences, &c. Tome III * 8vo. pp. 492. With a second 4to. Atlas of Plates. Paris, 1805. Imported by De Boffe. price 15s.

AMONG a multitude of very short articles in this volume, we have been much gratified with the perusal of a few which are treated in a very ample manner, yet without superfluous minuteness. The subject of argillaceous earths is treated in two chapters, the first of which relates to their divisions and geognostic situation, and the second to their nature, properties, and uses. Of the difficulty of assigning precise characters to the multiplied varieties of clay, M. BROGNIART seems to have been sufficiently aware. As, in

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* See Appendix to Monthly Review, Vol. 46. p. 465.

fact,

fact, it presents, in its natural state, no series of essential and constant marks, but only a mixture of different earths in variable proportions, it can never form a mineralogical species, according to the most received principles of modern arrangement. The alumina, which is essential to its designation, often exists, as *Haüy* has justly observed, in such a trifling proportion, that, in a method founded on chemical analysis, most of the stones denominated clays could not be classed under the title of aluminous. We may add that scarcely any two strata of argillaceous earth exactly resemble each other; and that striking differences sometimes occur even in the same stratum. In this state of embarrassment, the mineralogist is reduced to the necessity of limiting his descriptions to some of the most prominent varieties, which are distinguished by external appearances, by the places in which they occur, or by the uses to which they are applied in the arts. Assuming, as the general properties of clays, diffusibility and ductility in water, and induration in heat, we may thus distinguish them from mere schisti, which are not diffusible in water; from horn-stone, trapp, serpentine, and other stones of a dull, earthy fracture; which, however moistened with water, never form a paste; and lastly from chalks, which, though diffusible, are not ductile, in water, and are not susceptible of being hardened by heat.

M. Brogniart distributes the principal varieties into *apyrous*, *fusible*, *effervescent*, and *ochreous*. The first in his first section is the *Native Argil* of Kirwan.

'The real existence of this clay in nature (he says) has been called in question. It has been found at Halle, in Saxony, in small mamellated masses, disseminated in the uppermost layer of the soil. As it now very seldom occurs in this situation, and there is a large laboratory in the neighbourhood, some persons have suspected that it is a product of art: but *Bönich*, who supplied *Fourcroy* with specimens, has observed that the laboratory is at the distance of more than a kilometre (513 toises) from the spot at which the clay is found, and that a very high wall intervenes. Native Argil is likewise said to have been discovered at Magdeburg, in Lower Saxony, in Silesia, at Potinier, near Verona, and in England. This clay is of a pure white, and meagre, though soft to the touch. When examined by the microscope, it appears to be composed (says *Schreiber*,) of a multitude of small prismatic and transparent crystals, a character which does not belong to artificial alumina. It adheres strongly to the tongue, but does not form a paste with water, emits the argillaceous odour, and sometimes effervesces with acids. This last circumstance, according to Kirwan, proceeds not from the presence of an extraneous earth, but from the appropriate combination of the alumina with the carbonic acid. To the same cause, he ascribes its meagreness to the touch. Yet *Theodore de Saussure* assures us, from positive ex-

periments, that this clay contains no carbonic acid, and that alumina itself cannot be converted into the form of a solid carbonat.

'*Schreiber* has found in this clay some particles of the carbonat and sulfat of lime, and of the sulfat of iron.'

The *Collyrite* variety is also rare. *Friesleben* found it at Weissenfels in Thuringia, and Dr. Townson at Schemnitz in Hungary. It is white, ductile, and very retentive of water; which squirts from it by pressure. It loses, by desiccation, half its weight, and separates into basaltic prisms, like starch. According to *Klaproth*, the Hungarian sort yields 45 parts alumina, 14 silica, and 42 water.

The pipe clays are here denominated *plastic*; and many of their varieties, especially those which occur in France, are particularized.

Among the fusible kinds is the *Saponaceous*, or *Argilla Saponiformis* of *Werner*, which is found at Olkutsch in Poland, and in England, though very rarely. It is distinguished by its earthy and fine grained fracture, its soft and greasy feel, and its very strong adherence to the tongue.

Another remarkable variety has been termed the *light*. Its specific gravity, according to *Fabroni*, is 1,372, and sometimes only 0,362. It floats on water, when not imbibed by that fluid. That which *Fabroni* discovered near Santa Fiora, in the Siennese territory, and of which he made floating bricks, has been very improperly denominated *fossil flour*, and *mineral agaric*, which are popular names for certain varieties of the carbonat of lime. *Fabroni*'s analysis of light clay is, Silica 55, magnesia 15, water 14, alumina 12, lime 3, iron 1.—Of this description of argillaceous earth, *Faujas* has discovered two subordinate varieties in the department of the Ardèche.

M. BROGNIART'S remarks on the mineral situation of argillaceous earths are sufficiently conformable to the general state of facts; and his details with respect to the manufacture of bricks, tiles, earthenware, tobacco-pipes, &c. are likewise extremely judicious and satisfactory. A few paragraphs are allotted to the alcarazzas, or cooling vessels of Spain, Egypt, Syria, &c. M. *Fourcroy*, of Paris, has succeeded in imparting a still lower temperature to water by employing a slightly baked porcelain of a coarse grained paste.—A long and distinct account is given of the china manufactory at Séves. Those of Vienna, Meissen, Frankenthal, Louisburg, Berlin, Copenhagen, St. Petersburg, Naples, Florence, and Madrid, are also mentioned, but no notice is taken of those of England.

The article *Arsenic* is likewise treated at some length. As this fossil substance occurs under various forms, and is even included

cluded in matters which conceal its external characters, the author justly observes that it is of great consequence to fix on one or more tests by which its presence can at all times be easily ascertained. Of these, the most simple and obvious is the pungent odour of garlic which it diffuses, when put on live coals: but since an inexperienced observer may confound this smell with that of oxyd of antimony, it may be proper to add its great volatility in the form of white smoke. 'This volatility is so considerable, that the metal is sublimed before it is fused; a circumstance which sufficiently distinguishes it from antimony. Lastly, the prepared oxyd of this metal is fixed, whereas that of arsenic is very volatile.'

The term *assolement* is used by M. *Tessier*, to denote *rotation of crops*. From his own observation, the author is convinced that the more closely any two species of plants (especially of the gramineous families) resemble one another, the less fit are they to be sown in immediate succession. Thus oats will succeed better than barley, immediately after wheat or rye; and leguminous or cruciform plants much better than oats. The same doctrine, he affirms, applies to shrubs and trees. 'If (says he) you cut down a row of elms, you should not replace them by other elms; as I know by experience that the plantation will not succeed, unless the new trees be planted in the intervals of the old, or unless the soil be renewed on the stations of the latter. Hence, too, a plantation of pines should be succeeded by one of larch; that, by oak; the oak by the chesnut-tree, &c. Whenever, in the kitchen garden, I have replaced one pear-tree by another, the latter has always failed to prosper: but an apple tree, though little removed from it in respect of botanical characters, turned to much better account; and trees with stone fruit may be expected to thrive more than those with small seeds, when planted on ground which has been occupied by the latter.'

In the same article, some useful hints will be found with regard to the management of fenny grounds, and the alternate *crops* of *fish* and grain.

Baleine is a long but very entertaining and instructive article. Nearly sixteen pages are allotted to the anatomical and physiological details; eight species are particularly described; and much important information is added concerning the external senses and habits of cetaceous animals, their numerous enemies, the particulars of the whale fishery, &c. &c.

A singular fact, related by *La Cèpède*, is advanced in confirmation of the acuteness of smell possessed by the whale. Vice Admiral *Pléville*, being one day at sea with his fishermen, preceived several whales in the horizon, and was preparing to make

make room for their passage, when he ordered the bilge water to be thrown out of the boat; and they instantly disappeared. This experiment he frequently repeated on the approach of whales, and always with the same success.

We have already hinted at the too great brevity of most of the other articles. Among the multitude of terms wholly omitted, we may mention *argyrite*, the spume of silver, *arondelat*, a young swallow, *arondelière*, celandine, *arphye*, the hornbeak, *arundinacé*, of the red kind, *aspergonte*, fever-few, *asperifolié*, that has rough leaves, *attentes*, the chives of saffron, *averat*, the musk-pear, *azuré*, the azure lizard, *baccifère*, berry-bearing, *balladin*, the Numidian crane, *balotin*, a variety of the lemon-tree, *balux*, sand impregnated with particles of gold, *bambele*, the small white carp of the lake of Zurich, &c. &c.

The second atlas of plates is by no means inferior to the first; and, though we cannot assert that the performance, on the whole, promises to approach that point of perfection of which the scheme is susceptible, it may certainly be consulted with benefit in a great variety of instances, and may frequently contribute to the accommodation, if not to the instruction, of the scientific naturalist.—The present volume begins with the word *Argielas*, and ends with *Bamia*.

Muir.

ART. VII. *Essai sur les Causes*, &c. *i. e.* An Essay on the Causes of the Superiority of the Greeks in the Arts of Invention; a Question proposed by the Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Lyons. By J. J. LEULIETTE, Professor of Belles Lettres, &c. 8vo. pp. 120. Paris, 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2s. 6d.

AMONG all the phænomena recorded in the history of human improvement, none is more striking, or has more perplexed the ingenuity of the learned fully to explain, than the vast superiority once attained by the Greeks in the imitative arts. Many of their productions, which have happily survived the destructive efforts of time and barbarism, are still unrivalled; and for all the real elegance and taste which Europe now possesses, we are indebted to the ideas which they have communicated. Rome, before her acquaintance with Greece, displayed nothing in painting, statuary, and architecture, which merited any praise; and we need not go far back to be convinced that the productions of the chisel in our own country were rude and mis-shapen, till our artists began to study the science and to copy the models of the Greeks. Every other nation might make a similar remark; and it is certainly an interesting object to inquire into the causes which contributed to raise

raise the petty states of antient Greece to a degree of excellence in the arts, which has rarely been equalled and never surpassed;—which was matter of admiration to the Romans in the most brilliant æra of their republic; and which modern Europeans, after the lapse of many centuries, are contemplating with almost despairing astonishment. Were the antient Greeks an *unique* race of men, or was the climate of their country singularly propitious to the exertions of genius? Neither of these positions perhaps is admissible. Since Zeuxis, Apelles, Lysippus, Phydias, and Praxiteles flourished, considerably more than twenty centuries have elapsed: but it is remarkable that, after the disappearance of the circumstances under which they lived, the subsequent ages became ages of barrenness; and Greece, for a long, long period, has been as barbarous as any of those nations on whom, in the days of her splendour, she conferred this degrading epithet. We are indebted, probably, to the mild climate of Attica for the preservation of the works of the antient Greeks, which in a more variable and corrosive atmosphere must long ago have inevitably perished: but it cannot be supposed that the people owed their inventive genius, and the correctness and sublimity of their taste, to the purity and elasticity of the air. The climate of Greece remains the same, but the glory of the Greeks is departed.

The brilliant epoch of the polite arts was also that of the belles-lettres. We see the poets and orators of Greece associated with her painters, sculptors, and statuaries. While her philosophers and legislators regulated the commonwealth, and her heroes bled in its defence, she was immortalized by the verse of her poets and by the tools of her artists. It is reasonable, therefore, to imagine that this resplendent galaxy of genius must have originated in a common source. 'Without doubt,' says M. Leuliette, 'this people were indebted for the brilliant advantages which they enjoyed, for their august character, and their imposing supremacy, to the forms of their government, to their religious ideas, and to a legislation peculiarly favourable to the developement of talents.' Neither of these causes alone would have been adequate to the wonderful effect; and even a general view of their combined operation will scarcely impress the mind with a conviction of the truth. We must have lived in the age of Grecian glory; we must have witnessed the enthusiasm excited by Homer, and those poets whom his muse may be said to have inspired; we must have caught the ardor and emulation produced by popular governments and institutions; we must have been present at the Olympic and Isthmian games; and we must have been spectators

tators of the pomp and splendour of their religion, which was aided by all the fascination of an elegant mythology; in order to feel a portion of that *momentum* by which genius of every kind was powerfully impelled to the sublimest exertions, and by which the arts were advanced to the greatest perfection.

M. Leuliette hints that 'the climate and the situation of the countries of Greece might contribute much to excite ideas of the sublime;' adding, 'we know that most of the antient poets were born in the smiling isles of the Grecian Archipelago, which fable has embellished with its most seducing delusions, or in the vicinity of Attica.'

'The islander is constantly struck with the most superb pictures; the vast ocean aggrandizes his thoughts, and the storms of which it is the theatre furnish him with magnificent comparisons. Commerce attracts foreign nations to his ports, which bring riches hitherto unknown, and enlarge the sphere of the mind. The islander observes, judges, compares; and without travelling he becomes acquainted with the manners and laws of other states, together with their gloomy and august superstitions. Imagine to yourself a country in which nature is most varied in her forms, and most subject to vicissitudes; in which are enjoyed by turns the most chearful and the most majestic prospects; in which the mind from time to time experiences rapture and surprise; in which mountains that lose themselves in the clouds, and forests impressed with the features of antiquity, summon to reflection and meditation; in which grottos, fountains, and groves give birth to the bewitching dreams of mythology; and if to all these riches of nature be added a temperature which awakes and varies our sensations, storms and tempests which affright the vulgar, and give occasion to poets to impute to the anger of the Gods those volcanoes and convulsions of nature, which seem to ravage the earth with the flames of hell: if, moreover, on the confines of this poetic region, ferocious and warlike beasts contend with man, and untamed animals assign even limits to his power, creating deserts around themselves, remaining independent of a Being who receives chains only from his fellow-creatures, and who would have every thing in subjection to him;—while we trace a spectacle so varied, so fertile in contrasts, we cannot but feel how the poet, the painter, and the statuary were there furnished with resources.'

According to this representation, all countries which present the sublime and the beautiful in strong contrast,—and especially islands, which, in addition to rural and romantic scenery, enjoy the prospect of Neptune's "salt wave,"—ought to abound in celebrated poets and artists: but here the author before us depicts rather than reasons. Indeed, in a subsequent part of his essay, he abandons this explanation of his subject; remarking that the government and political institutions of the Greeks had more effect on their imagination than can be ascribed to their climate.

Homer

Homer is here contemplated with the warmest enthusiasm as the parent of Grecian art; and next to his divine genius, from the copious fountains of which orators, philosophers, and statesmen, drew inspiration, M. Leuliette discovers in the democracy of the Greeks one cause of their mental elevation. 'A popular government,' he observes, 'is propitious to talents of all kinds; it exalts all the passions; it forces men to shew themselves, with all their virtues and their faults, greedy of power, and capable of sacrificing every thing to independence. Wherever man is found in a state of perfect liberty, he is in the vicinity of the extremes of virtue, and of the extremes of corruption. He then displays no mediocrity either of good or evil. In this state, so favourable to the developement of his faculties, he fears no restraint, he forms the boldest projects, and there is no point, however elevated, which he does not wish to attain.'

After all, however, the Democracy of the Greeks will serve but partially to account for their superiority in the Arts. We think that the public games celebrated in Greece, and their anthropomorphic religion, contributed more than any other circumstance to the perfect exhibition of the human form, and to the study of ideal beauty. Their mythology represented men raised to the honours of divinity; and their artists employed the utmost stretch of their genius, in giving to those images which were worshipped in their temples a form and an appearance surpassing all human realities. Of the painter and the statuary, it was required to embody the fictions of the poet, and to give grandeur and solemnity to the ceremonies of the priest. Not only the temple, the altar, and the tripod, but even the God himself, was created by the skill of the artist. We may judge, then, how highly his powers must have been estimated, and to what a pitch all his abilities must have been exerted, to bestow on a religion of *spectacle* the most imposing and striking effect. In endeavouring to exhibit Gods of the most attractive forms, he was obliged attentively to study the human figure, and to combine together beauties which never perhaps were united in any one individual. Artists therefore labored to surpass one another in this admirable department of their profession. Employed in the creation of divinities, and in the representation of their actions, their works seemed to be the result of inspiration; perfection was their aim; and they never ceased till perfection was accomplished. After they had excelled in the formation of Gods, it was easy to execute the statues of men, and to flatter the great by giving to their figures the resemblance of particular deities. Thus in the idolatrous systems of antient Greece, with which all the human passions were

were intimately combined; in her political customs and institutions; and in the events of her history, which brought into vivid action the most noble powers of the mind; we may discover those circumstances which peculiarly fostered the arts: but it would demand a very minute analysis,—an analysis which M. LEULIETTE has not attempted, and which would require very persevering labour to supply,—to exhibit that view of the progress of Belles-Lettres, and the Arts, which would satisfy the ingenious inquirer.

It might be said that other countries have abounded in sacred mythologies; and that Egypt in particular, the acknowleged cradle of Grecian sicence, though professing a religion which equally addressed itself to the senses, and endeavouring to create an effect on the public mined by visible representations, never produced artists who exhibited such elegant and correct forms as those of Greece. Let it, however, be remembered that the mythology of Egypt was not so propitious to true genius as that of Attica; that Egypt had not a Homer; that her religion delighted more in stupendous and emblematic than in beautiful and chaste forms; and moreover that the nature of her government was not calculated, like that of the Greeks, to bring into action all the intellectual energies of her people. During the period of Grecian glory, all that was great in man, all that contributed to exalt his powers, and to kindle every spark of talent, was cherished by the most happy combination of events, —by a combination which very rarely occurs in the history of the world. Greece was a little universe; and a single city there presented, within the period of ten years, more interesting scenes and greater characters than all Asia, in the course of ten centuries.

Supereminent as once was the glory of Greece, it has long disappeared; and only in the remains of her literature and her art, are we able to trace her antient superiority. Whether any future revolution will revive her consequence, it is impossible to foresee: but at present she is sunken to the lowest level of human degradation:—over which, M. LEULIETTE pours an affecting and at the same time an artful lamentation:

'This country, which has conferred so much honour on humanity, is no longer visible among nations; and the luminary, which once enlightened her, seems to have set for ever. Rome has been more fortunate; she has risen from her ruins, and has obtained a second existence almost as brilliant as the first. She does not indeed present in modern times the majestic and striking spectacle of a free and conquering people, nor a senate formidable to her citizens and to the whole world: but the genius of her sovereigns has procured for her a domination not less extensive than that which she formerly enjoyed. The pomp of the Vatican and the temple of the Apostle of

of Christianity have in some degree eclipsed the majesty of the Pantheon and the palace of the Cæsars. Italy has seen *chefs-d'œuvre* arise on the remains of those of antiquity, and her harmonious lyres have revived the ashes of Horace and of Virgil: but Greece has never recovered the happy privilege of enlightening and charming her people, and barbarians now trample that classic ground. The stupid sectaries of Islamism, incapable of the efforts of creative genius, have almost effaced the very traces of the glory of Athens; brutish and miserable slaves, without thought, and in stupid ignorance, walk over the august theatres on which Sophocles and Euripides disputed the tragic palm, on which Æschines and Demosthenes shared the triumphs of eloquence, and Plato and Aristotle partook the glory of enlightening mankind.

'The isles have endured the same fate in which the continent has been involved; the same yoke is imposed on Rhodes, so celebrated both for her master-pieces of art and for the industry of her inhabitants; on the island of Crete, in which poetry has placed the cradle of Jupiter; and in short on the whole Archipelago, in which the illusions of fable conspired with the charms of nature to create a region of enchantment. What happy revolution, what change in European policy, will restore this country to its pristine glory; and there rekindle, after the lapse of twenty centuries, the torch of the arts!'

In this apostrophe, we perceive the views of the French. In fact, M. Leuliette's Essay is rather a bold declamation than a sober inquiry; and perhaps he already sees, in his poetic visions, the French flag waving on the walls of the Acropolis.

Mo-y.

Art. VIII. *Mémoires de M. le Baron* de Besenval, &c. *i. e.* Memoirs of the Baron De Besenval, Lieutenant General in the armies of Louis XV and Louis XVI, Great Cross of the Order of St. Louis, Governor of Haguenau, Commandant of the Provinces of the Interior, Lieutenant Colonel of the regiment of Swiss Guards, &c. Written by himself, printed from his original Manuscript, and published by his Executor, Containing many particulars and ancedotes of the Court, the Ministers, and the Reigns of Louis XV and Louis XVI, and of the Events of the Time. Preceded by a short account of the life of the Author. In 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 1s. sewed.

An introductory note informs the reader that he is indebted for this interesting work to M. *A. J. de Ségur*, who was Executor of the will of M. de Besenval, and who guarantees the authenticity of the publication. M. *de S.* has also prefixed to it a brief memoir of the author, from which we shall make an abstract.

Peter Victor, Baron of Besenval, was born at Soleure, of a Patrician family. He entered into the regiment of Swiss Guards as a cadet at the age of nine, made the campaign

paign of 1735 at the age of thirteen; and served in Bohemia as aid de camp to the late General *Broglio* in 1748. In the very commencement of the seven years' war, the bravery which he manifested in storming a redoubt, and the pleasantry by which he kept up the spirits of his men, which were ready to droop, though success was within their reach, raised the young BESENVAL to early notice, and insured his speedy promotion. In the war of 1757 he served as aid de camp to the Duke of Orleans; and during the peace, the Baron contracted that close intimacy with this Prince, which afterward assisted his fortune. If he possessed every requisite which commands success in camps, that bravery, that rare manner of animating all around him, of charming his comrades by his sallies, of encouraging his inferiors by his example, and of recommending himself to his chiefs by that intelligence and activity which he unceasingly displayed, he was not less distinguished by the grace, talents, address, and the good taste, which seduce in courts.

He joined to a tall figure that form which gave charms to youth, and dignity to advanced age: but he laboured under one grand defect; he was subject to outrageous bursts of passion. This imperfection he had in vain attempted to remedy; and he was at length induced readily to give way to it, as to a violent crisis which could not be prevented, and from which he could thus be the most speedily freed. An interesting anecdote of him is related on this subject. He had an old Valet named *Blanchard*, who had served his father before the Baron was born, and who had ever since been in the family. He was bending under the pressure of age, lived with his master as an old friend rather than as a servant, and had only little matters to arrange, which contributed to amuse him and keep him in gentle exercise.

'A Cape Jasmine was one day brought to M. DE BESENVAL, which he destined for the Queen: but having occasion to go out, he confided it to *Blanchard*, desiring him to water it. The good man busied himself with the flower, but his attention did not preserve him from a sad misfortune. The pot slips, falls, and is broken; the root, the flower, are all reduced to fragments! At this moment, M. BESENVAL enters; he runs to his jasmine; at the sight of the catastrophe, he flies into a passion which soon rises to fury; the old man attempts to escape, but his master lays hold of him, and loads him with reproaches.— The day passes on, and the rage of the Baron still more quickly dissipates.

'He sends several times to the door of *Blanchard* to learn how he is; the answer is that he is gone to bed; this disturbs him, and torments him during the whole of the night. In the morning, he rings; when *Blanchard* enters the chamber, and thus addresses him: "My lord,

I come

I come to ask a favour; it is the permission to retire to my relations." —"What," says M. de B. warmly: "you desire to leave me! You will stay, sir, we ought to live and die together."—"No, my lord, I perceive that I become hateful to you, I grow too old, and only excite, by my infirmities, the violence of your temper.—You have loaded me with gifts and kindness; I will often come to see you: but if I dwell not here, and am no longer entrusted with any thing, we shall both of us escape those scenes which destroy us." "Well, sir," replies the Baron with teats in his eyes, "it is then a settled thing? we must part? You belonged to my father, your wife was my nurse, you are older than I am in the family, and it is I who must go; I will return when you can tolerate my failings." At these words, he took his cane and his hat, quitted his chamber, and was going out: but immediately the good *Blanchard*, moved by this unexpected stroke, throws himself at his feet before his door. His master raises him, presses him in his arms, they shed tears, and swear never to separate.'

We shall have occasion to observe, however, in the sequel, that M. le Baron, with all his natural goodness, was rather deficient in morals. His biographer admits that he was more lively than profound; that he owed more to nature than to art; that his fine *tact*, which made him divine what was proper to be said or done on most occasions, covered his scanty knowlege, and perhaps misled him, by enabling him to talk on subjects with which he was not acquainted; and that he was of opinion that a man of the world had little need of instruction, and ought to confine his studies wholly to his profession. He died in 1789, 'at a time,' observes his biographer, 'when he would have been obliged to witness events which would have thrown him into despair. He left to society only honorable recollections; military men remember him with respect; the arts regret him; his family regard him as their boast; and his friends will always bewail him.'

The work commences with an account of the reforms introduced into that part of the Swiss soldiery which was in the pay of France; a detail which interests chiefly as it shews the honourable native bent of the author, his firmness in a laudable undertaking, his foresight, his address, and his thorough knowlege of the people with whom he had to deal; a knowlege which each country dignifies with the name of the knowlege of the world.

Our readers are informed that, about the beginning of the last century, a war of religion, excited by the priests, raged some time in Swisserland. It is also notorious that many of the catholic leaders embarked very unwillingly in the contests which the holy incendiaries had excited; and of this number was the commandant *Pfiffer*. Not desirous of vanquishing the protes-

tants, he took a bad position, and even permitted himself to be turned. His son, who was not in the secret, perceived the fault which his father had committed, and apprized him of it: but seeing that he took no steps to remedy it, and full of a patriotic enthusiasm worthy of the first Romans, he cried out from rank to rank: *What; will no person kill my father; as for me, I cannot; I am his son.*

Curious anecdotes, interesting sketches of several Generals, and remarks highly creditable to the understanding of the writer, give value to his accounts of several battles which happened in the course of the seven years' war; they claim the attention of historians, and will be very acceptable to military men.

Every body has heard of the profligacy of manners which prevailed under the Regent. Instances which completely illustrate this fact are stated in these volumes, and we regret to find the accounts descend into offensive detail; at least into such as a British public would deem highly indecorous. It is to be feared that our brave, high-minded, and in other respects honorable and upright Baron entered but too much into the dissoluteness of the period; since he publishes to all future times, that he gave every assistance in his power to a deliberate seducer, in order to facilitate his triumph over an affected prude. The Baron indeed admits that this proceeding, which he endeavours to gloss over, may perhaps redound to his shame. We think truly that it does, and in a high degree; even after every allowance has been made for his want of education, and his relation with a court in which all morality was set at defiance.

The Baron states that the father of the late king of Portugal, on being asked by his mistress, during one of his visits to her, to grant her a favour, became all at once silent; *and can you*, said she, *refuse me what I so much desire?*—*No*, replied he, *I promise you that to-morrow I will speak of it to the king.*—The same monarch held one day an argument with the Marquis *de Pontèlimar*, on the power of kings; the latter maintained that it had limits, but his sovereign would admit of none, and said to his courtier with great warmth, *if I ordered you to throw yourself into the sea, you ought, without hesitation, to jump into it head foremost.* The Marquis immediately turned short, and went towards the door. The king, surprized, asked him where he was going. *To learn to swim, Sire.* The king laughed heartily, and the conversation ended.

The author of these memoirs was closely connected with the Duke *de Choiseul*, of whom many anecdotes are here related; but they descend too much into minutiæ to allow of our ex-

tracting or abridging them. The picture which the Baron draws of his patron is a good likeness though favourable: but the great features in his administration, the Austrian alliance and marriage, are entirely passed over; and the relations are principally confined to affairs in which the court and the Jesuits were concerned with him. Some of the matters here disclosed place in a strong light the power, influence, and activity of that society. It appears that it was not with the Duke *de Choiseul*, as has been generally thought, that the plan of abolishing it originated: but that the measure had its commencement in the parliament of Paris, and was first mentioned by the king to the minister, who had not then formed an opinion on the subject; and it being Louis's wish, it was agreed to put a stop to the measures that were instituted against it. Louis preserving the same intention, but following other advice, suffered matters to go so far that there was no longer an opportunity of saving the order; he then conferred again with the minister, who, having maturely considered the matter, had come to the conclusion that the order ought not to be preserved, and told the king that it was best to get rid of it. "Let it be so," said the monarch smiling, "I shall not be sorry to see father *Desmarets* reduced to an abbé." On all occasions, the same indifference manifested itself in the proceedings of Louis XV.

Those scandalous scenes, which took place during the illness of this contemptible and worthless monarch, are here detailed with great particularity; and, though a partisan of *Choiseul*, the author exposes the infamy of them with as much severity as might be expected from a revolutionist. He states that M. *d'Aiguillon* and Madame *du Barry* had peopled the court with sharpers, intriguers, and spies; and that not merely the physicans, but the king's almoner, the Cardinal *de la Roche-Aimon*, gave themselves up, on the awful occasion, to the purposes of the minister and the mistress.—We turn to another anecdote.

'M. *de Lamoignon*, descended from a family very celebrated in the annals of the long robe, whose name occurs so frequently in the histories of the revolution, and who was keeper of the seals at the time of its commencement, married the sole heiress of M. *de Berrier*, who had been long lieutenant of police. In consequence of his marriage, he found himself in possession of a number of notes and documents which equally implicated individuals and families. None were more interested than Messieurs *de Maupeou*, that these papers should not fall into the hands of the public. Neither the father, who had been a long time first president, and afterward vice-chancellor; nor the son, then president *à mortier*, afterward president, and finally chancellor, was exempt from stains on his character, which would have disgraced him, had they been exposed to the light. The younger *Maupeou* never scrupled means, if an object was to be at-

tained: venality had often supplanted the integrity of the magstrate; and, in a word, he had reason to reproach himself with all the excesses to which a man without principle is abandoned. As he was ambitious, and therefore desirous of concealing the vices of his character, he left no method unʼried to induce M. *de Lamoignon* to give him up the papers which affected himself and his family. He incessantly courted the president, practising every art to insinuate himself into his good graces, and at length openly asked him for the papers. *De Lamoignon* gave him a decisive though civil refusal. *Maupeou* dissembled his disappointment, and continued his attentions to the president as before; until one day a domestic of *de Lamoignon* came to inform him that M. *de Maupeou*, after having employed every effort to seduce him, offered him a large bribe if he would take from his master's house a certain case (the form and place of which he described,) and bring it to him. It was precisely that which contained the papers of M. *Berrier*. When next the grave magistrates met, *de Lamoignon* poured out the most bitter reproaches on the future chancellor, and desired him never again to enter his door.'

M. DE B.'s account of the origin of the parliament, the grounds of its pretensions, and the extent of its authority and jurisdiction, constitutes the most instructive, though not the most amusing portion of these volumes; and it is far superior to what we should have expected from a courtier belonging to the military profession. Though he himself follows no method, yet his observations branch into three divisions, which severally embrace the antiquities, the political functions, and the legal administration of the first sovereign court, the Parliament of Paris.

It is justly observed that 'the feodal powers of the lords and the prerogatives of the governors of provinces and of those of cities, troubled the order of society, prevented civil subordination, and obstructed the course of justice." When Cardinal *de Richelieu* broke down whatever confined the power of the crown, it is asked by the Baron, why he suffered the pretentions of the parliament to continue? Did he consider that court as a depositary of the acts of government; and the fact of registering as a circumstance necessary to give them notoriety? Did he wish to leave the nation a phantom of a barrier, the effects of which he did not foresee, against the will of the monarch? The author does not pretend to guess what the consideration was, which determined a mind so arbitrary as that of the Cardinal, to suffe any check on absolute power to remain in the constitution.

'Formerly, (he remarks) the monarchs in person administered justice: but at a very early period they empowered the principal lords to supply their place. These chiefs, of whom the greater number could not read and write, were ignorant of the provisions of law

law which regulated both civil and criminal proceedings; and it was to inform them of these rules, that they were attended by legists; who had no deliberative voice, were seated on inferior benches, and never spoke but when they were required. The distresses of the exchequer occasioned the sale of their places, and they were appointed assessors to the lords; who, making an indifferent figure by the side of their assistants, fatigued by the length and intricacy of the proceedings, and called away by war and other avocations, soon ceased to attend, and the whole proceedings were left to the men of the robe. The parliament was a body of such a nature that it might easily assume a consistence. The dispenser of justice, it became an object which engaged attention and deference from all orders, and it was also the depositary of the archives of the nation. In times of civil war, the parliament, according to the part which it took, was either the support of the throne or the shield of the disaffected. In a minority, it adjudged the regency. Being the only fixed and legal body in the kingdom, it became the resort of the oppressed and the ambitious It assumed the protection of the people, and undertook to make representations to the throne in its favour. Mere administrators of justice at first, all the political functions of the members were usurpations.'

The Baron denies that the parliament ever protected the people against burdensome imposts. 'In such cases, (he says) it was gained over by money, or by the hope of favour and recompence. It only shewed itself inflexible and undaunted when its own rights were in question, when it was endeavouring to extend them, or attempting to interfere in the civil administration.

'In dispensing justice, it favoured the extension of vexatious and ensnaring forms, and tolerated the exactions of the advocates and sollicitors; even the members themselves claimed exorbitant fees, and opened their ears to interest and corruption. Equity could not insure the success of a suit, nor the acquittal of a person criminally charged. The judges allowed themselves to be sollicited; and they required that they should be complimented even by suitors who had lost their causes. If, then, protection and favour found their way into the courts, how much was it to be dreaded to have a suit with any of the members of the robe? It was a grievous misfortune to have property lying conveniently for any one of them. How many unhappy persons in the provinces have been stripped of their inheritances, and have been robbed of their estates, by iniquitous decrees, when they happened to be contiguous to the domains of a member of one of the Parliaments? So indecently did they conduct themselves, that no constable or bailiff could be induced on any terms to serve the members with process; they were consequently never arrested by their creditors; nor were there goods ever taken in execution, though men in distressed circumstances were as common among them as in any other class.

'When the Parliament became obstinate, and continued disobedient to repeated orders to register the royal edicts, the king held what has been termed his *lit de justice;* that is to say, he went to the Parliament, accompanied by the Princes of the blood, the Peers, and other notables, and there, in his presence, caused the decrees and registrations which he did not approve to be erased. The royal sitting being finished, the parliament protested against the violence, and there the matter ended, if the public interest only was concerned: but if that of the Parliament was in question, it had recourse to strong measures. The different tribunals then united, the members of the several courts assembled in the hall of the principal, and were solely occupied with the matter of their grievances; and in violation of their oaths they discontinued to administer justice to individuals. There was no remedy for this monstrous evil, except exile, which was ever regarded as severe and harsh, and which increased the public inconvenience of a cessation of the administration of justice.—The members had long contended that they were not removeable from office.'

M. de B. is unable to guess how this claim sprang up and was recognized: but it appears to us to have arisen almost necessarily from the sale of the appointments. To have encouraged persons to quit other pursuits, and to lay out their fortune in the purchase of a respectable office, and afterward to claim a power of divesting them of their stations, would have been in the particular instances extreme oppression; and it would have had the effect (which probably was the decisive consideration with a distressed court) of reducing incalculably the value of the places, and thus of drying up one of the resources of the exchequer.

It is really amazing to see how every circumstance in the last reigns tended to usher in the awful catastrophe which followed. What a scene is that which takes place between the two great law dignitaries, who almost successively held the seals of the kingdom, the former as chancellor, the latter as keeper! Or who can read without horror the picture of the parliament, from which we have seclected a few traits? We cannot wonder that a society crumbled in which such serious evils prevailed, or that a state perished, the vitals of which were thus corroded. When the fountains of justice are poisoned, the body politic must languish; and if it is exposed to any rude shocks, they will inevitably prove fatal to it. There may be complete political servitude; yet if justice is fairly and equally dispensed between the subjects, the nation may be contented and prosperous: but if there be a failure in that quarter, languor will prevail, and be followed sooner or latter by dissolution. Little doubt is now entertained that it was the crazy state of the antient edifice which induced the ruin that we have beheld; and we have here a witness to the fact who is unexceptionable,

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a courtier who moved in the first circles, who was in the secret of most of the measures which the court adopted, and who was actively concerned in accomplishing several of them. He long enjoyed the confidence of the queen; he was able, even when deprived of that particular favor, to influence her by means of Madame *de Polignac*; and again when *d' Adhémar* and *Vaudreuil* had supplanted him with the favourite, he had still access to her, and was encouraged to make representations which were always treated with attention, and very often carried into effect.

In noticing the marks of attachment shewn to Louis XV. in the early part of his reign, the Baron states that

'His indecent conduct in living with Madame *de Chateauroux*, in the face of his whole army; the indignity with which, in the apprehension of death he had dismissed her; and the weakness which he shewed in recalling her on his recovery; occasioned very free observations to be then made for the first time. Madame *de Pompadour*, a city matron, publicly carried off from her husband in order to exercise sovereign authority, caused the mask to be wholly thrown away, and opened a channel for licentiousness. Conversation, verses, songs, libels, every mode was adopted to give this affair the colouring which belonged to it, and in order to vilify the monarch, who soon fell into contempt; the certain forerunner of state disturbances. This conduct excited in the ladies of the court implacable resentment, and they ceased not to deafen the ear with their complaints and protestations: but their indignation and exclamations knew no bounds, when, two years after the death of Madame *de Pompadour*, they beheld the illegitimate offspring of a monk and a cook-maid (taken from a place of bad fame by a sharper of the name of *du Barry*, who supported her under the name of *de Lange*, or of Mademoiselle *Vaubernier*, and who was ready to sell her to any one who would give a good price for her,) become the sole dispenser of the king's favour. It was at the feet of this mistress that Louis XV. placed his sceptre, and thus consummated the opprobrium and contempt with which he was covered. Under this new sovereign, the court changed its aspect. All who made professions of honor, and who respected decency, were overwhelmed by the denunciations, the licentiousness, the intrigues, and the corruption of this woman, whom they called *Comtesse du Barry*; who drew to court a crowd of people without morals, spies, and intriguers of all kinds, who took possession of Versailles. The corrupt part of the courtiers placed themselves at the head of this wretched assemblage.'

M. De Besenval vindicates his patron and friend the Duke *de Choiseul*, from the disgrace of having promoted *Maupeou* the younger; and he tells us that this hated minister owed his advance to the king's own suggestion. 'The act of cashiering the parliaments,' he adds, 'very much increased the alienation of the people from the goverment:' yet is he of opinion

that this act would have been a salutary one, if it had been properly followed up.—He seems to be very much disturbed by the political interference of the women, against whom he indulges in frequent *tirades*. Observing their vehemence against *Madame du Barry*, he pours out a philippic on the occasion; and he states, that, in consequence of the decree abolishing the parliaments, the women became the supporters of what they called the *Fundamental Constitutions of the State*. 'At conversations, at suppers, nothing else was the theme; assemblies for society and pleasure were become small states general, in which the women, transformed into legislators, quoted maxims of public law, cited history, and laid down principles with a confidence and an earnestness with which the importance and celebrity of the business inspired them.'

The reader will recollect that these scenes took place four years before the death of Louis XV. What can equal the blindness of the court, when, with such plain symptoms before its eyes, it could abet and aid the revolt of the British colonies, and transport the youth of the country and its troops to that school of republicanism?—The excess of corruption will appear from this anecdote:

'As the Duke *de Choiseul* and some others were one day riding with the king, the latter asked the minister to guess the sum which he had paid for the carriage in which they were then seated; he replied that it was worth five or six thousand livres, but that his majesty, paying a royal price, might have perhaps been charged eight thousand. "You are very much out in your calculation," answered the king; "it costs me, as you see it, thirty thousand livres." The minister proposed seriously to the king, a few days afterward, to remedy these abuses in the household, offering to undertake the task himself, if Louis would assist him in it. "My dear friend," said the king, "these robberies in my house are enormous, but it is impossible to put a stop to them; too many people, too many *powerful* people are interested in them, for us to flatter ourselves with the hope of abolishing them. All the ministers, whom I have had, have formed the project of remedying this evil: but they have abandoned it in despair. Cardinal *Fleury* was very powerful, since he was master of France, but he died without having carried into effect any one of his ideas on this subject. So believe me, compose yourself, and disregard a mischief which does not admit of cure."

This purification, not many years afterward, under happier auspices, was accomplished by M. *Necker*, and was quoted with great eloquence and happy effect by Mr. Burke in the British Parliament, in his celebrated speech on economical reform.

Pope Benedict XIV. was fond of observing that there must be a providence, since France flourished under Louis XV.; and certainly, while that prince was doing every thing that was cal-

lated to weaken authority, and to undermine the state, the throne remained unshaken during his time, amid all the symptoms of approaching ruin. He relied on the hold which antient institutions maintained on the minds of the people, and on their habits of obedience. It is evident also that he possessed more of understanding, however much debilitated it might be by his dissolute conduct, than fell to the share of his unfortunate successor. Louis XVI. the most timid of men, little favoured by nature, and wholly without experience or information, yielding to the best intentions, took a course the opposite of that which his grandfather had followed, and proposed to rest his power on the good will of his subjects. Their affections he resolved to secure by acts corresponding with his dispositions, which were laudable and benevolent; and relying on these, the well-meaning monarch ventured into a track which would have been hazardous to a sovereign of the greatest wisdom and firmness, but for which no man was ever less qualified than Louis XVI. The history of every proceeding, that called for judgment and decision, shews how limited was his understanding, how destitute he was of discernment, and how utterly void of firmness was his nature. The Baron appears to be fully sensible of the monarch's want of capacity to discharge the ordinary duties of his arduous and elevated situation. The re-establishment of the Parliaments without conditions, and the blind confidence placed in the frivolous, mischievous, and pitiful dotard *Maurepas*, at the very commencement of his reign, displayed in open day his glaring deficiencies.

The following portrait of Marie Antoinette, we believe, is more just than the glowing picture which procured the object of it in this country so many admirers, and which made so many proselytes to the cause in which she was suffering. The very shrewd Baron had lived some time in her intimate confidence, knew her well, and remained to the last on the best terms with her.

'Though the Queen (says he) was not strictly a beauty, nor a fine woman, nor a correct figure, yet her lively countenance, her striking carriage, and the elegance of her person, gave her a superiority over many who were more indebted to nature. Her character was gentle and prepossessing. She felt strongly for the unfortunate, and she took delight in succouring and protecting them. A strong propensity to pleasure, and a great portion of coquetry and levity, though but little of natural gaiety, occasioned her to appear with less advantage in society than might have been expected from her solid good qualities, and her personal charms. She had no fixed sentiments. Her familiarity was injurious to her consideration; while the demeanour, which she was obliged to assume in particular circumstances, was inconsistent

inconsistent with the character which she affected, that of an amiable woman. She had been endowed with no education. She never opened a book, except occasionally a romance; nor did she even seek the information which might be collected in society; the moment an affair became serious, she was seized with *ennui*, and the discussion was cut short. Her conversation wandered, and flew from object to object. The tale of the day, and court scandal, were her amusement. She never could be persuaded to apply to any thing like business, but filled up her time with frivolities. She had a complete ascendancy over the king, and latterly swayed him in most of his determinations.'

The Baron also furnishes us with a sketch of the Dutchess *de Polignac*; who, possessed of the entire favour and confidence of the Queen, was regarded for many years as the principal mover in all the measures of the court of Versailles; and who, it is well known, is most unfavourably depicted in all the revolutionary publications.

'She had the most charming countenance that ever was bestowed on mortal; and it was impossible to say which feature bore the preference. Her shape, and the rest of her figure, did not entirely correspond with the perfection of her face: but she deservedly passed for the finest woman of her time, and the one who pleased most universally. Her character was more perfect than her person; that which formed its basis was a calmness which was never disturbed by any situation, circumstance, or object, not even by personal events the most calculated to discompose. This quality enabled her justly to estimate things, and to be as much above prejudice as she was free from enthusiasm. She was most remote from presumption; and she would often frankly say, "What you state to me is above my capacity." Her carriage, her actions, her conversation, even the tones of her voice, partook decidedly of gentleness. She was of a tender sympathizing nature; and she never refused that succour to distress which it was in her power to bestow. Fond of domestic happiness, she looked to the loss of her influence rather as desirable, than as a matter of dread; and she valued her power and her fortune more on account of her friends than herself. Her great fault arose from that tranquil nature which she possessed, and which occasioned her to be negligent in a thousand matters to which she ought to have vigilantly attended, considering the situation in which she stood, and the confidence reposed in her by the Queen.'

Very different pictures of this lady, we are well aware, have been exhibited to the public; and perhaps the charms of person, and the attentions of a fascinating woman, have rather dazzled the judgment of the Baron. If Madame *de P.* was not the fiend which the revolutionists describe her to have been, neither probably was she the simple inoffensive good creature which she appears under the pencil of M. DE BESENVAL.

The Abbé *Sieyes*, previously to the horrors which incensed all the world against the demagogic proceedings of the French, was complimented

complimented by his partisans with the title of the "*engineer of the revolution*". What the credit may be which this ascription, if just, would insure him, we shall leave to be estimated by others; only observing that his functions, and those of his coadjutors, were of a very humble and ordinary nature; since they only assisted a mouldering edifice to crumble, and helped to pull down that which was about to fall of its own accord. The *engineers of the revolution* were personages of a superior order to the Abbé *Sieyes* and his fraternity; it was by the inmates, the guardians, and the defenders of the fortress, that it was undermined and battered; it was by the last two monarchs and their advisers, and their ill fortune, that the mighty downfall was effected that has caused agitations to which no defineable period can be assigned.

Another sketch, which we shall borrow from this artist, who paints strongly, is that of the Comte *de Maurepas*; who makes so considerable a figure in the tragic story of Louis XVI. and of whom the Baron says,

'Accosting him on every subject that entered my mind, I had an opportunity of sounding his depth; whether from indiscretion or levity I know not, but he gave full answers to all my inquiries, and often told me more than I had asked. I found him consummate in court intrigues, hackneyed in business, but careless about every thing except his own credit, and the sort of men who were to be admitted into the ministry; in which situation, he would have only creatures who were to depend entirely on him, and whom he could annihilate with a breath. Every transaction he made a theme of pleasantry, and every individual an object of sarcasm. No man approached him whom he did not lash in this way, and on whom he did not exercise his powers of ridicule. It was into the hands of this minister, that the unfortunate Louis XVI. was thrown, on his accession, wholly without experience, and after having received the worst possible education under the Duke *de Vauguyon*. This crafty old courtier only studied how to govern the monarch, without giving him a single idea on the subject of the government of his people.'

We know few men whose memory will more excite detestation than this selfish, unfaithful, treacherous minister; who, to serve his own purposes, contrived to keep his unsuspecting confiding master in that ignorance which cost him at once his crown and his life. On the subject of the baseness of this unworthy statesman, one opinion only has prevailed; with regard to him, the writers of all factions are agreed.

In these volumes, we find a paper intitled '*of the society of kings*'; which, as coming from an experienced courtier, and a most faithful servant and subject, possesses no common interest. The Baron, not less loyal than Mr. Burke, is not less free in his animadversions on the imperfections of kings. His observations

tions are conceived in the true spirit of philosophy, without the affectation of it, and form a satisfactory comment on the dicta thrown out by Mr. Burke in a speech before mentioned.

'This society charms at first, and it is grateful to kings to be allowed to be familiar, while the royal favour crowns the wishes of the courtier: but there is no intimacy which is attended with more inconveniencies, nor which is subject to more vicissitudes. An unfounded disadvantageous rumour may hurt a man in society, but there his judges are more considerate, as being subject to similar inconveniencies, and as being in the habit of estimating the credit due to such reports; kings, on the contrary, so much separated from the rest of the world, cannot enter into this calculation; and they resign themselves absolutely to the public voice, to that of their mistresses, confessors, or their society, if they have any.

'Sovereigns are men, and as such more disposed to yield to unfavourable than to good impressions. Often with them a word is sufficent to impair the reputation of a person, to put a stop to his good fortune, and even to ruin him. Let it, then, be judged under what continual constraint an honest and honorable man must be placed, who enjoys the familiarity of kings; unless he constantly restricts himself to the inglorious part of applauding, excusing, or of being silent.

'With kings there is no subject of conversation. We certainly are not to speak of politics to them, nor of the news of the day; neither can administration be made the topic. Many events, which happen in society, cannot be related to them; and not a word must be said to them on religion, of which they are the guardians.

'Former wars, antient history, facts which are even but little remote, sciences, and belles lettres, might furnish conversation, but where are the courtiers who are conversant with these points? The kings also are not numerous, to whom this strain would be intelligible. The subjects, then, for this high converse, must be supplied by common place affairs, the theatres, and the chase. Let us not persuade ourselves that we can interest kings by flattering their taste, since they rarely have any. They find so much facility in gratifying it, that it passes before they have even fully enjoyed it. In order to participate in pleasures, we must combat contrarieties, surmount difficulties, and feel privations. The love of glory or the chase can alone place kings in this situation; and we always see the one or the other of these predilections form their ruling passion; the love of glory has possession of those of an elevated disposition, while the chase is the pursuit when the mind is of the ordinary standard.

'Since the regard for kings cannot be otherwise than interested, suspicion becomes the basis of their character; and this feeling renders intimate connections impossible. Accustomed to homage, they believe that all is due *to* them, and that nothing is due *from* them. The courtier who is most injured by them must redouble his attentions, lest his imperious master should suspect that he resents the treatment, charge him with insolence, drive him from his presence, and thus cut him off from the hopes which his whole life has been employed to realize. Let not kings be censured; it is on the cupidity and baseness of all who surround them that we ought to animadvert.

madvert. It is the first duty of a sovereign to maintain good order; he watches over it every moment, restrains those who would disturb it, and sometimes sacrifices his own inclinations for its preservation. This sort of occupation is not favourable to grand thoughts, but it insures tranquillity, without which there is no enjoyment.

'The circumstance, which has ever appeared to me the most revolting in the society of kings, is that of having no will but theirs, of sacrificing one's pleasures and affairs to the lightest of their caprices, and with a submission and a readiness which exclude from the compliance every idea of merit. When it is also considered that the restraint of the most profound respect continually affects all that is said and done, even in the freest moments, it will be admitted that the jealousy and the enemies which are ever the appendages of royal favour are dearly purchased. It is a mistake to suppose that this familiarity with the monarch enables a man to solicit favours: for he must on no account presume to do this, or he runs the utmost risk of being for ever undone.

'It is a great question whether it is best that kings should cultivate society, or should shut themselves up in their palaces, and never appear but when surrounded with splendour and form. If on the one hand society meliorates the character of kings, presents them with a view of those ties which unite men, and of the reciprocal duties which that union requires, the difference between the education of the sovereign and that of private individuals gives the latter the advantage in this intercourse; and this commerce also acquaints the subjects with the imperfections and defects of the monarch; thus inducing an unfavourable opinion, the greatest misfortune perhaps that can befall a state. When kings, then, lay aside their grandeur, should they conceal themselves from the view of their subjects, and should they be regarded by them as those mysterious personages to whom they only owe the homage of respect? Let a wiser head than mine decide this question, with respect to courtiers. I subscribe to the opinion implied in the saying of Henry IV. *Happy the country gentleman who lives on his estate, and who does not know me!*'

These are the sentiments of a man near the close of life, who had spent most of his days in a court; sometimes enjoying distinguished favour, and always possessing great credit and consideration. It will be perceived that many of these observations, able and sensible as they are, only apply to the case of absolute monarchs; without being founded when made to refer to that of sovereigns whose powers are defined, and in whom the authority of the state is vested conjointly with other orders.

If our disapprobation has been strongly called forth by a few, and but a few, instances in which the pen of the Baron has given countenance to moral irregularities, this feeling has not blinded us to the great general worth of his character. When it is considered that his infancy and youth were consumed in camps, and that he passed the prime of life and the remainder of his days in a licentious and profligate court, the censure ought to be

be gentle, and the applause cordial; and if a strong courtly bias pervades every page of these narrations, the situation of the author is an ample apology for it.

It is impossible for us to give the reader an adequate idea of the strong light which these volumes throw on the reigns of the last two monarchs of the House of Bourbon. The observations which are madeare neither refined nor brilliant, but they are those of a man of solid understanding, versed in a knowledge of the world and the intrigues of the court, and well acquainted with the course of public business. If there be several of his remarks in which we cannot coincide, we regard the greater number as extremely well founded. His *facts* and his representations, however, are the parts which enhance the value of his communications in our estimation; and in this view they will be of eminent use to the future historian. Yet we must not omit to state that, if the materials be authentic, they have been huddled together without any arrangement, assortment, or digest. If also the author's sketches be in general faithful, he rarely attempts a whole figure, or even a complete face; and the limbs and features lie scattered from one end of the volume to the other.

ART. IX. *Les Souvenirs de M. Le Comte* DE CAYLUS, &c.; *i. e.* The Recollections of the Count DE CAYLUS, Member of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres; printed from his inedited Manuscripts, intended as a Supplement to the Recollections of Madame *de Caylus*, his Mother: with some Letters, also hitherto unpublished, from that Countess to her Son; and preceded by an historical Notice of the Life and Works of that Academician. 2 Vols. 12mo. pp. 368. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s.

THE anonymous editor of these detached pieces has not condescended to inform us in what manner he procured them, nor by what proofs he can establish their authenticity. The spirit and style of many of them certainly bespeak a mind of sensibility and refinement; and it may be true that he, whose name they bear, really collected them from his own observation, or from persons worthy of credit: but all this is too vague to satisfy the inquisitive and discerning. It is likewise not unreasonable to suppose that the person, who had access to the original papers of the Count DE CAYLUS, might have added something to the tame and hackneyed account of his life and writings. In vain, however, we have looked for untold anecdotes, or the recital of those literary incidents which form the charm of biographical writing; and which our grave philosophers

phers too often disdain in their dignified but frigid narratives. The present sketch is little more than a meagre compression of *Lebeau*'s meagre *Eloge*. The few circumstances which are mentioned are highly creditable to the memory of Count CAYLUS: but they were already sufficiently known to every reader who is conversant in French literature.

Most of the little historical notices, which are inserted in these posthumous volumes, would have excited a lively interest at the times to which they refer: but a new generation has sprung up, and events of unprecedented magnitude have absorbed the attention and feelings of mankind. To the dark and contemptible intrigues of the Count *d'Olivarez*, the disgrace of *Fouquet*, the motives which induced the Chancellor *Pont Chartrain* to retire, &c. &c. we now listen as to "a tale that has been told." If the memorandums, to which we allude, really flowed from the pen of Count CAYLUS, they prove that his activity of mind extended to the character and private conduct of great personages, and that he was an acute observer of those court intrigues in which he never participated.

The 'Story of Pamphilus and Melazia' is a pretty and diverting *jeu d'esprit*, addressed to Madame * * * on the trying situation of a *cornuto*.

The gallant and ambitious views of Mad. *de Prye*, and her influence at court, form the subject of some curious pages. These are followed by a long and eloquent letter from Father *Caussin*, Confessor to Louis XIII. exhorting Mad. *La Fayette* to persevere in her profession of a nun; and retracing the history of her pious resolutions, and of her separation from the king.—The first volume concludes with the following portrait:

'Madame *de St. Fierie* is no longer young: but Nature, unwilling to lose what she had done for her beauty, seems to have studied to preserve it entire. Her's are not passing charms; nor is her beauty merely that which *has been*. In her, every thing is noble:—her countenance, her taste, the tone of her voice, the style of her letters, her speech, and her polite attentions. Her words are select without affectation, and her converse is agreeable and interesting. She forgets nothing, and she has seen much: but she regulates the extent of her recitals by the pleasure of others. Without omitting any important circumstance, she leaves us to regret the shortness of the facts. If books were composed in the manner in which she speaks, the love of reading would be a general virtue. She chuses her friends with admirable discernment; and her friendship is courageous, and proof against every attack.

'Yet, as all excellence usually borders on defect, the sensibility of her heart sometimes prevents her from seeing objects as they are; and her delicacy in regard to her friends is sometimes the cause of her withholding

withholding from them, and consequently from herself, what is due to justice.

'Naturally destitute of presumption, she leaves to others the care of knowing and estimating her character. The manner in which she listens gratifies those who speak to her, and allows them not to doubt that she hears them with favourable attention: for nobody is more observant, and nobody more prepossessing. Would to heaven, that her example might correct the women of the present day! She is the better qualified to serve them as a pattern, because the gentleness of her manners naturally inspires confidence. In short, she is a person destined to move in the higher circles; and who gives us an idea of all that is said of the genuine politeness of the court.'

The portrait of M. *d' Ablé* is touched with the same delicate discrimination, but the subject is less engaging.

The section which is intitled '*Anecdotical* Recollections, Bons Mots, and Short Reflections,' consists chiefly of short extracts from antient writers, and was certainly never intended for publication, in its present form. These passages were, perhaps, inserted occasionally in a common-place book, with the view of illustrating particular points of antiquarian criticism: but, in their loose and disjointed state, they are little calculated to fix the attention of the reader. A few, however, may be quoted for their point, or humour:

'A king of Egypt was so successful in training monkeys to the art of dancing, that they were long admired for the dexterity of their movements. At length, a citizen, who loved fun, threw some walnuts into the *ball room*; when the creatures instantly forgot all their capers, and sprang to the booty.'

'In order to judge of a clever man, we must be as clever as he is.'

'Some painters have figured Fortune blind, and on a rolling rock, while others have given her hands and wings, but no feet. When Apelles was asked why he represented her in a sitting posture, he replied, because she had not yet learned to stand on her feet.'

The next portrait is that of the Countess of *Rochefort*. Though too exquisitely finished not to suffer by translation, we doubt not that the English reader may be pleased even with an imperfect copy of part of the picture:

'Madame *de Rochefort* is young, and of that age in which taste is, for the most part, indicated only by its first perceptions. That age is to life what spring is to nature. Flowers are its only ornament.

'But when poets have allowed their imagination to sport in agreeable fictions, they have fancied regions in which the smiling graces of spring are blended with the fruits of summer and autumn, and in which even hope may be realized.

'Madame *de Rochefort* belongs to these regions: they are her native country and her home.

'Her figure presents at first nothing that is particularly attractive: but it improves on being contemplated.

'It

'It is the image of the morning, when the sun has not yet risen, and when we have a confused perception of a thousand agreeable objects. When she speaks, her countenance awakens; when she becomes animated, her expression is decidedly apparent; when she smiles, life kindles in her frame; and we at length love to gaze on her as on a landscape in which no separate object arrests attention, but of which the whole composition delights the spectator.

'Should she ever cast her eyes on this portrait, I shall tell her news of herself: for she is quite unconscious of all her worth; and others, from this very reason, perceive it, and feel it the more.'——

The gallantries of Mary of Medicis, and the incestuous amours of Cardinal *Richelieu*, are treated with more elegance and interest than such odious subjects deserve.

In another section, the author laments the decline of French literature, and ascribes the perversion of the public taste and the decay of the fine arts to an imitation of English manners and fashions. 'Every body, from the cradle, (as it were) wishes to be a master. Anglomania, above all, has spoiled the nation. A pretended philosophism has been imported from London, with the jockeys.'—Our censors now retort that we import philosophism from Paris; and this mutual recrimination reminds us of the following French epigram:

Dorillas et Damon, ces deux fameux poëtes,
Sur leurs vers ne sont pas d'accord:
"On ne peut sans bâiller lire ce que vous faites,"
Dit l'un: "En VOUS *lisant," repond l'autre, "on s'en dôrt."*
L'un a raison, et l'autre n'a pas tort.

We shall pass over some portraits, and the anecdotes relative to the amours of Louis XIV. to make room for part of the *shade* of Cardinal *Richelieu*:

'The mind of this man was lively and active, but always restless, and the constant enemy of the public peace, and of his own. Many reckoned him a great and astonishing character. Yet some of his intimate friends remarked in his composition a large portion of folly. Every thing fretted or shocked, and nothing soothed nor contented him. He long continued firm and powerful, more by his own authority and the empire which he violently usurped over the public mind, than by the kindness of his sovereign; and the accomplishment of his foolish schemes is to be ascribed rather to good fortune, than to his own prudence, or to the vigour of his counsels. In one respect, however, he was too *un*fortunate, since heaven manisfested its chastisement in those loathsome maladies, with which it afflicted him to the last:—that heaven from which he might have drawn stable comfort, salvation, and bliss, had he not preferred to seek for happiness in the ruin and misery of others, and in his own sufferings and perpetual torments.

'As both sorts of bile were his ordinary executioners and ours, after he had discharged his venom on the multitude, there still remained much more in reserve for his own wretchedness.

'He was more ambitious than all the rest of the world combined; he was as covetous as any individual who can be mentioned; and while he was prodigal and lavish of the substance of the people, and of the revenues of his prince, he was extremely œconomical of his own.

'If he was cruel to those who offended him, he was irreconcileable to those whom he had once injured.

'In return for the numberless favours which he received from the Queen-mother, who had raised him to the summit of influence and honour, this ungrateful man ceased not from his machinations, till he had created a misunderstanding between her and the king, her son; till he compelled her to quit France, and wander, as a fugitive, from kingdom to kingdom, from city to city, and, at length, to take refuge in Cologne, where she expired in consequence of his wicked devices. That he might triumph over her even after death, and testify his immortal hatred, he controuled at pleasure the terms of her last will; and for five months, during which he continued to live, he denied the right of sepulture to her remains, which, during all that time, had no other grave than her chamber.—

'He condemned many noblemen of distinction to perpetual imprisonment, and many more to banishment.

'He made his king's court a desert to increase his own; and he proscribed an incredible number of people of rank and military station, lest they should oppose his pernicious counsels. In short, the French never manifested so much moderation, and never contemplated more calamitous and bloody scenes.'—

The rest of the canvass is of the same horrible colouring, and seriously admonishes the rulers of nations to beware of delegating power to an unprincipled individual.

Only three letters are published as from the pen of the Countess of *Caylus:* which, though neatly expressed, have no claims on our particular notice.

In concluding our report, we have to observe, in general, that these *Recollections* contain several passages that are at once entertaining and beautiful; others which possess no peculiar attractions; and a few which all who are interested in the preservation of good morals could wish to blot out for ever. In several places we have perceived a want of precision in the style, and a strange partiality to laconic sentences and paragraphs: but the performance, on the whole, whether posthumous or not, can scarcely fail to be acceptable to those readers who are fond of memoirs, anecdotes, and sketches of distinguished characters.

Muir.

ART. X. *Tableau Elementaire de Botanique*, &c.; *i. e.* An Elementary View of Botany, in which all the constituent Parts of Vegetables are explained in the most intelligible Manner; with an Account of the Systems of *Tournefort* and *Linné*, and of the natural Families of *Jussieu*. By SEBASTIAN GERARDIN (*de Mirecourt*,) Ex-Professor of Natural History in the Central School of the Vosges, and attached to the Museum of Natural History of Paris. 8vo. pp. 470. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 8s. sewed.

THIS modest treatise is professedly destined for those botanical students, who cannot easily afford the more expensive elementary works. It is dedicated to *François de Neufchâteau*, President of the Conservative Senate, &c.; who, in the midst of a bustling political career, has deigned to direct his attention to the promotion of science. From a marginal note annexed to the preliminary discourse, we are sorry to observe that the author, who has devoted thirty years of his life to the study of Natural History, has been obliged to struggle with those pecuniary embarrassments which so often repress the zeal and ardour of inquiry.

Previously to entering on the explanatory parts of his work, M. GERARDIN gives a short historical abstract of the progress of Botany, from the earliest to the present times; and succinct biographical sketches of *Tournefort*, *Linné*, and *Bernard de Jussieu*.

The subject of the book properly commences with definitions of Botany and Vegetables, and then treats successively of the seed, germination, roots, stems, branches, external and internal organization, buds, leaves, organs of reproduction, times of flowering, constituent parts and modifications of the flowers, of the fruit, diseases, and death of plants; and these physiological details are succeeded by an exposition of the methods of botanists, especially of those of *Tournefort*, *Linné*, and *Jussieu*. This ample and accurate view of the modern nomenclature of the science is followed by some excellent directions for laying out a Botanic Garden to the best advantage, on a small scale; and for preparing a *hortus siccus* according to the author's successful practice. The medical virtues of plants most generally known are set down in alphabetical order. An analytical table of the contents, and an explanation of the plates, (which are very neatly executed,) conclude the volume.

From this rapid sketch of M. GERARDIN's publication, it will be manifest that it can afford little scope for criticism, or entertaining extracts. The various definitions and explanations are stated with becoming plainness and precision; and if the

reader should sometimes wish for more particular information, he should recollect that the author purposely aimed at brevity, and intended only a volume of moderate size. The writings, from which he seems chiefly to have condensed his compilation, are those of his countrymen *Jussieu*, *Lamarck*, *Desfontaines*, and *Ventenat*: while the list of the medical properties of the most popular plants is avowedly borrowed from *Gilibert's Demonstrations de Botanique*, Buchan's Domestic Medicine, and the *Encyclopédie Methodique*. Here we may be allowed to express our regret that no mention is made of Woodville's Medical Botany; and that the alleged uses are, in general, noted with too little discrimination.

The subsequent remarks will be found to merit the attention of the curious:

'It was long supposed, is still believed, and has been repeatedly affirmed to me by the forest officers, that the number of the years of a tree can be ascertained by that of its concentric ligneous layers. But this is, doubtless, a fallacious criterion; for the celebrated *Duhamel* has very properly observed, that there are a great many trees which do not complete a layer in the course of a year; while others, from causes which are unknown to us, produce several in the same space of time.

'Some botanists have imagined that the vegetable life of trees depends in part on the existence of their pith. Hence we may presume that they never saw, as we do every day, many willows, oaks, &c. of a considerable diameter, which are not only hollow within, but often retain only the half or the fourth part of their trunk; and that, too, of a very trifling thickness, covered with a rotten bark, and which nevertheless produce every year new branches, leaves, and even fruit.

'An important observation of M. *Ramatuel*, communicated by M. *Ventenat*, in his excellent *Botanical Dictionary*, p. 48. strikes us as too interesting to be passed over in silence. "Such exotic plants," says he, "as have scaly buds both at the base of the leaves and at the top of the stems, can exist in the open air, whereas those which have them at the base of the leaves only will perish unless they be reared in a hot house." I have tried the experiment indicated by these authors, in my own garden, which is exposed to a very cold temperature, and it has completely succeeded.'

The original parts of M. GERARDIN's book, and which are really intitled to the consideration of every botanist, are those which relate to the distribution of a garden, and the proper management of an herbal: but, as we cannot follow him in all his details, especially without the aid of the plates,—and as those who are anxious to avail themselves of his instructions will, no doubt, have recourse to the original,—we shall only mention that, in the course of two or three years, an *arpent* of neglected surface was converted into the orderly and beauti-

pository of nine hundred and fifty-seven species of herba-

ceous

ceous plants, and one hundred and twenty trees and shrubs; and that the author's herbal consists of twenty-two port folios, containing between two and three thousand species, in the most approved state of preservation.

Should any of our countrymen be induced to translate this Elementary Essay, we would recommend the suppression of those parts which relate to the methods of *Tournefort* and *Jussieu*, and which are chiefly adapted to the exigencies of continental botanists. This retrenchment would, in course, leave room for a greater extent of more important explanations; or it might admit the incorporation of the most useful parts of other works of a similar description.

Muir.

ART. XI. *Voyage en Portugal*, &c.; *i. e.* Travels in Portugal, by the Count of HOFFMANSEGG, prepared for the Press by M. *Link*, being a Supplement to *his* Travels in the same Country. 8vo. pp. 350. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 6s. sewed.

BY referring to the 41st volume of our New Series (p. 167.), the reader will find an account of Professor *Link*'s Travels in Portugal; and we mentioned that, on his return to Germany, he left his companion, the Count of HOFFMANSEGG, to prosecute some farther journeys in the same country. The object of this supplementary volume is to correct some misstatements which occur in the preceding, and to convey the additional information suggested by the Count's subsequent excursions. M. *Link* holds himself responsible for the manner in which he has digested the materials, and for the physical and moral observations which he has blended with them.

The first chapter contains a series of rather minute and dry remarks on the province of *Tras os Montès*. The elevated soil of this district frequently gives birth to plants which are not found in the lower valleys of Portugal; and the *Serra de Navalheira* is particularly noticed on account of its fertility and diversified vegetation. Among other rare plants, it produces *Pistacia Terebinthus*, the wild vine, which twists round the trunks of the largest trees to the height of forty or fifty feet; *Saxifraga hypnoides;* and various mosses which overgrow the rocks. This valley is narrow, picturesque, and covered with brushwood.—The only iron foundery in the kingdom is at *Chapa Cunha*, under the direction of *Antonio Braga*, who has introduced some important improvements in the process of converting the ore into metal. The same gentleman discovered plumbago at *Ventizello:* but he was enjoined by the government to desist from his researches.

In the second chapter, which relates to the province of *Entre Minho e Douro*, the obliging and disinterested hospitality of the inhabitants of the banks of the Homen is commemorated with warmth and gratitude. We are here transported into 'a new Arcadia, surrounded by inaccessible rocks, where the traveller is received with boundless confidence and an unceasing cheerfulness, which sweeten every moment of his stay.'

With respect to this province in general, 'Southern Europe,' the author remarks, 'presents no country in which, under a temperate and even a warm climate, are to be found so many valleys shaded by beautiful trees, and watered by limpid streams;—in which, too, the culture of the ground, and the active industry of a numerous population, are combined with the charms of nature. I may add, a country of which the amiable inhabitants welcome every traveller with confidence and kindness.

'*Minho*, compared with the other provinces, contains a great many considerable towns and villages. A part of the population is, however, scattered in detached houses. There are *Concelhos* of two thousand and even of five thousand families, including the separate dwellings, which are dispersed to some distance from the place itself. This circumstance forms one of the principal comforts of the district. When we have reached one of these fine valleys, we always travel among men; one habitation succeeds another; a continued shade protects us from the solar rays; and clear rivulets diffuse that agreeable coolness, which, under these degrees of latitude, is felt with a gratification unknown to the inhabitants of northern countries. The fair plains of the south of Europe, as for example those of Italy, borrow their charms from art. The Appennines, if we except a few valleys, present a sombre and uniform aspect, and the upper parts of Italy and the south of France begin to verge too much to the north. According to the descriptions of antient and modern authors, the beautiful Tempe must resemble one of these delightful valleys of the *Minho*.'

The province of *Beira* forms the subject of the third chapter. One of the principal objects, on which the writer here dwells with complacency, is the romantic and majestic site of the convent of *Bussaco*. This religious house is occupied by Carmelite monks of the order of *Marianos;* and without permission from the General of the order, no stranger is allowed to intrude on their privacy. Much of their time is passed in the performance of stated acts of devotion; and their rules proscribe *butcher's meat* and *conversation*. They are, however, permitted to talk to one another once in a fortnight, during an evening walk. The prior alone can receive and converse with strangers; and as none had visited him for a long time, he amply availed himself of his privilege, and talked incessantly with these travellers. They were

treated

treated with vegetables, eggs, and cod, (which were all very nicely dressed,) and with excellent wine.

The Benedictine nuns of *Ferreira de Aves* are by no means subjected to the law of taciturnity; for we are told that their conversation was very animated, that they spoke much, and that they laughed immoderately.

On the 4th of June 1800, Count HOFFMANSEGG had nearly perished in the snow of Estrella. His critical situation is detailed in his own words: but the passage is too long for our quotation.

The island of *Murraceira* is remarked on account of its salt pools, and the spontaneous growth of *Mesembryanthemum nodiflorum*, a rare plant in Europe.

On the small river *Prisco*, a lead mine was discovered in 1740: but though the ore yields 92 per cent. (query?), and the vein is very large, it has never been worked with permanent advantage, owing to the injudicious interference of government.—A colliery at *Capo de Buarcos* will probably be lost to the public from bad management and neglect, some of the workings being already under water.

Thus far, we have not particularly adverted to the Professor's corrections of his former journals, because they chiefly relate to errors of orthography and mistakes in etymology. At the bottom of page 144, he informs us that he is now enabled to rectify his notions concerning the height of the mountains in Portugal, and we were prepared for much specific detail and calculation: but we only learn that the highest summit of *Gerez*, which had been stated to be 4000 feet above the level of the sea, is scarcely 3000; and that the *Estrella* is more elevated than it had been supposed. These conclusions, so far as we can perceive, rest on physical indications of temperature, which are much too vague for the purposes of accurate estimation.

Chapter the fourth contains the alterations and additions to the former account of *Estramadura*. Several are noticed under *Lisbon*: but, as that city has been so often described, we shall not stop to report them in detail.

Two of the Professor's annotations on his own text may serve to relieve the general gravity of his relations:

'In vol. I. p. 275. I mentioned that a lady of distinction at Caldas in the Gerez, who was sitting before her door, had laid her head on the lap of her chambermaid, to get rid of some troublesome companions. The Portuguese admit not the fact, and assure me that their women have no vermin, but only feel a pleasure in having their head scratched. This may be the case; for my information on the subject is not very precise. I admit, however, that the inhabitants of these fine countries contrive to procure some such means of irritation;

and if the ladies cannot enjoy the tickling sensation, without sacrificing appearances, I here present them with my public apology.'

'I remarked (vol. I. p. 294.) that *Kaestner* stands first in the list of corresponding Members of the Academy of Lisbon; and one of my friends observed that this man's reputation must be very high. It is not his reputation, however, which has determined his academical rank, but his Christian name *Abraham*; for in Portugal, the alphabetical order is always determined by the *prænomen*. This worthy man would be tempted to smile, were it still in his power to peruse these lines.'

The ensuing passage is of some importance in a geological point of view:

'Various relations, and the verbal assertion of the celebrated *Dolomieu*, had apprized me that basalt is very frequent in the environs of Lisbon; and, though I do not believe in the volcanic origin of that stone, I was reasonable enough to admit the coincidence of earthquakes with the existence of basalt and volcanoes. But I could discover only a narrow basaltic band, which, beginning at half a league behind *Belem*, partly disappears towards *Quelus*; continues, without interruption, behind *Belem*, and the valley of *Alcantara*, towards the lofty arches of the aqueduct; then turns in the direction of *Bemfica* and *Bellas*; and thus rejoins the first branch. Basalt generally forms only elevated summits: but here it appears in the shape of hills, which are overtopped in every direction by higher calcareous mountains. Hence I conjecture that the limestone involves the basalt (a very rare occurrence); and the examination of a particular spot on the banks of the river has strengthened my opinion. At the same time, it is possible that the limestone may have been precipitated from the more elevated range, and that the basalt may have been adjected to the sides of the calcareous mountain. The small stripe of basalt, which we noticed at Cape St. Vincent's, has the same appearance. For the rest, we can discern no vestige of basalt, or of real volcanoes: and I have ascertained, by repeated observation, that the part of the city, on which the earthquake exercised its greatest ravages, reposes on a limestone bottom. The cause of the earthquakes, whatever it may be, resides beneath the calcareous strata. Portugal is a proof in point. This country contains a great many thermal springs, which, according to *Vasconcellos*, amount to two hundred; and, though this computation may be exaggerated, they are certainly more numerous than in any country of the same extent in Europe. It deserves to be particularly remarked, that the greatest number and the hottest of these springs issue from granite, which should be regarded as constituting the primitive mountains. We know that granite is the most ordinary basis of all other sorts of stones, that it is covered by others, and that none have been discovered beneath it. The principle, then, which imparts heat to these sources, exists either in or below the granite; and the hottest of them are cooled, as they pass through other kinds of stone. Hence the moderate heat of those springs which flow from calcareous or sand-stone-hills. This deep origin of hot springs, of volcanoes, and of earthquakes, can afford little confidence

confidence to the inhabitants, since the explosions must produce effects proportionably violent and devastating.'

In the same chapter, we meet with some curious details concerning the Portuguese method of preserving snow in summer, and the manufacture of gun flints in the village of *Azenheira*. The flint occurs in fragments of a foot, or of a foot and a half in thickness, dispersed in reddish sand. With a solitary iron tool, and singular dexterity acquired by practice, an expert cutter will easily finish two hundred flints in a day, for which he receives about 2s. 8d. sterling.

Chap. V. which treats of the province of *Alemteio*, affords some sensible observations with respect to prevailing abuses in the subordinate departments of public justice; a topic on which few preceding travellers have enlarged. The *Escrivaes*, or public notaries, are particularly stigmatized as ignorant, rude, cunning, and rapacious.—The regular military force of the country is estimated at between thirty-eight and thirty-nine thousand; a number very inadequate to garrison all the frontier towns, in the event of war. M. *Link*, at the same time, contends that the character of the Portuguese soldiers has been considerably under rated.

The sixth chapter presents a few detached remarks on the kingdom of *Algarve*.—The Tunny fish arrives on the coasts of that province, from the north, in summer, but soon retires. If the sea about Cape St. Vincent's should happen to be much agitated, and discoloured with mud, which smells disagreeably, the shoals pass over to Africa, and disappoint the hopes of the fishermen.

According to the opinion of our botanical travellers, caprification is not essential to the maturity of the fruit:

'Female figs ripen without it, and the seeds of those which have not undergone the operation are more perfect than the seeds in those which have been punctured. In the late figs, however, nature develops the seed, and the fruit is less juicy. When the insect destroys the seed vessels, their appropriate nourishment is conveyed into the pulp. This fact accords with other observations. In proportion as the fruit is mellow and juicy, the seed is imperfectly unfolded; and, in the most succulent, it is in a great measure obliterated. To *improve* fruit-trees is only another expression for reducing them to a certain degree of debility, and destroying those sources of reproduction, which it is the constant object of nature to preserve.'

From the retrospective view of the country in general, which forms the subject of the seventh and last chapter, we may collect that Portugal is hilly and even mountainous; that its highest elevations are of granite; that a very considerable portion of it is characterized by schistose sand-stone, which includes the

the granite and other primitive rocks;—and that primitive limestone forms the chain of mountains which extends from Lisbon to Coimbra.

On the gradations of the vegetable productions of this kingdom, we shall not at present enter; because we expect more ample information from the *Flora Lusitanica*, which is now nearly ready for publication.

In birds and insects, this country is not particularly rich; and among its quadrupeds, the only rare species seems to be the wild goat, described in the former part of the work.

The highways are, in general, wretched; and the inns are far from comfortable, or commodious, though preferable to those of Castille. We may usually traverse the whole kingdom without fear of annoyance: but it is dangerous to offend any individual of power or influence; and insults are usually avenged by the poignard. While the author vindicates the Portuguese from their alleged debasement of character, he allows that they are frivolous and loquacious, but remarks that they are at the same time lively, polite, and hospitable.

We need scarcely remind our readers that they are not to expect much entertainment from the perusal of a volume which is avowedly supplementary, and, in course, composed of broken and insulated details. When these, however, shall be regularly incorporated with the journals to which they refer, they will considerably enhance the merit and value of the whole. The style is rather tame, and seldom animated: but the author certainly deserves a respectable rank in the class of learned and serious tourists.

Muir.

ART. XII. *Les Monumens Antiques*, &c.; *i. e.* The Monuments of Antiquity in the Napoleon Museum, designed and engraved by *Thomas Piroli*, with an Explanation by *J. G. Schweighaeuser* and *L. P. Radel*, published by the Brothers *F.* and *P. Piranesi*. 4to. 18 Numbers. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 15s. each Number on Vellum Paper, or 7s. 6d. common.

THE beautiful remains of the Fine Arts, of which Italy has been plundered, or (to use the French phrase) which have been '*conquered by Bonaparte*,' form a splendid Museum at Paris, which at first was called the *Central*, but is now termed the *Napoleon* Museum. Of this collection, engravers and authors are availing themselves in different ways; some preparing works in which designs and descriptions of the several objects are given with much elegance and expence; while others are endeavouring, by plates and letter-press of less magnificence, to accommodate the capacity of ordinary purchasers. We have

have seen a superb edition in imperial folio *, and another in humble octavo. The present edition in quarto occupies a middle place; and the publishers hope that the moderate price at which it is offered to subscribers (six francs per livraison or number) will place it within the reach of all amateurs, and of all public and private schools in Europe. The drawings from the busts, statues, &c. are asserted to have been taken with the most scrupulous attention, and the whole is intended to afford instruction to the antiquary and the artist.

In the classification of the multiplicity of objects contained in the Museum, some difficulty at first occurred: but it was finally decided to follow the historical order; and to exhibit the different representations of the same subject by the side of each other, for the sake of more easy comparison: so that, in the same *suite* or series, the lovers of antiquity may see, at one view, all the characters of each divinity, all the portraits of the same hero, all the circumstances of facts given under different forms, and all the costumes of different ages. Adopting this plan, the monuments relative to Mythology are placed first, according to the rank of the Grecian divinities; with whom are blended those subordinate mythological personages who are represented as dependent on them. The monuments belonging to the heroic and historical ages succeed, arranged as nearly as possible in chronological order; and the work (we are told) will finish with those decorative monuments, and other *morceaux*, which cannot properly be classed under either of the above-mentioned heads.

The author of the descriptions and explanations boasts of the friendship of M. *Visconti*, and professes to have availed himself in every practicable degree of his learned researches.

To enumerate the different antiques copied in this work would be to occupy two or three pages with a dry catalogue. It will therefore, we hope, be sufficient to say that this collection presents us with a variety of sculptures representing Jupiter, Juno, Minerva, Apollo, Æsculapius, Hygeia, Venus, Cupid, Ceres, Mars, Bacchus, Silenus, Hercules, &c. After these follow copies of the busts of Rome and the Nile, personified; of Jason, Theseus, Meleager, Paris, Achilles, Menelaus, Ajax, and Ulysses; of Homer, Euripides, Menander, Socrates, and other Grecian philosophers; of Alexander, Junius Brutus, Augustus, and the other Roman Emperors. Copies of Basso-Relievos are interspersed.

A plate representing the Laocoon in given in the 15th number, and the account of this celebrated groupe may be inserted as a specimen of the descriptions:

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* See App. to M. R. Vol. xliv. N. S. p. 475.

No. 62. LAOCOON. ‘ *Sadolet* has composed a short poem on this monument, but it has produced a volume from the pen of *Lessing*; *Winckelmann* has given a poetical description of it; *Mengs* has discussed it after the manner of an artist; and finally to the several accounts already published, M. *Visconti* has annexed his particular remarks. The bare analysis of all that Antiquaries, men of Letters, and Artists have written on this statue, would exceed the limits to which, in a work of this kind, we must confine ourselves; and this article will perhaps be found sufficiently extended by our own observations. Nevertheless, we must preface them with a succinct description of the subject, as it is given in Virgil's Æneid, B. ii. v. 199, *et seq.*

“ Laocoon, the son of Priam, and priest of Apollo, opposed the design of the Trojans to admit within their besieged city the wooden horse, containing the crafty Ulysses and the other Grecians; and he even dared to lance a dart against this fatal machine. But the artifice of Sinon, aided by the infatuation of the Trojans, prevailed. At the very moment when this insidious machine was about to be introduced within the walls of Troy, and when Laocoon was in the act of sacrificing to Neptune, two enormous serpents issued from the waves to assail him, coiled themselves around him and his two sons, and occasioned them all to expire by their venomous bites.”

‘ A citation from the text of Pliny, (Lib. 36. § 5.) Edit *Hardouin*, must be subjoined:

“ That which has been injurious to the fame of certain individuals, in spite of the excellence of their productions, is the circumstance of their having worked together on the same piece, since one alone cannot merit the honour of the whole, and we do not choose the trouble of naming them all. Such is the case respecting the Laocoon in the palace of the Emperor Titus, which must be preferred to all the efforts of the painter's and of the statuary's art. Agesander, Polydorus, and Athenodorus, celebrated sculptors of Rhodes, united their joint abilities in forming out of a single block the groupe of the father and his sons, bound together by the beautiful folds of the serpents. In like manner (*similiter*) the Palatine mansions of the Cæsars have been enriched by those most beautiful statues, which were executed by Craterus in conjunction with Pythodorus, by Polydectes in co-operation with Hermolaus, by another Pythodorus with the assistance of Artemon, and by Aphrodisius Trallianus alone. The Pantheon of Agrippa was decorated by Diogenes the Athenian.”

‘ This text has provoked a variety of critical discussions, undertaken with the view of discovering to what period of the arts this *chef-d'œuvre* belongs *Winckelmann* and *Visconti* have ascribed it to the most brilliant period of the Greeks. *Lessing* supposes that it ought to be referred to the times of the first Roman Emperors, and founds his conjecture on the passage of Pliny just quoted.

‘ As to ourselves, the sense of this equivocal text appears to present a comparison only between those artists who united their labours in the same composition; and it does not seem to us clearly to assert the identity of the epoch in which all these artists might have flourished contemporaneously at Rome with those who produced the

Laocoon.

Laocoon. First, because it was at the baths of Titus on the Quirinal that the Laocoon was discovered, and it was the Palatine which the other artists had adorned; and moreover the periods at which these two palaces were embellished are very different. The word *similiter*, in the passage of Pliny, refers only to the custom of joint-operation, which was common to the artists of the Laocoon and those of the statues which enriched the Palatine; at least, the contrary sense is not evident; and *Poinsinet de Sivry*, who had no prejudice of opinion on the subject, has materially affected the sense of the word *similiter*, by thus translating this passage—" The different palaces of the Cæsars on the Palatine-mount were filled with excellent statues thus executed in common."

' But *Winckelmann* himself replies to *Lessing* in his Inedited Monuments; and he opposes to his opinion the base of a statue found at Antium, which bears this inscription:

ΑΘΑΝΟΔΩΡΟΣ ΑΓΗΣΑΝΔΡΟΥ.
ΡΟΔΙΟΣ ΕΠΟΙΗΣΕ.

' It is clear that this inscription bears the names of the two fellow-labourers of the Laocoon. Now, according to *Winckelmann*, the characters are of an age much anterior to that of the Roman Emperors; and if so, the authors of this groupe flourished at a period antecedent to that which some have thought to be intimated by the text of Pliny.

' To this proof, *Winckelmann* adds that the heads of the two sons of Laocoon are in the same style with the heads of the two sons of Niobe at Florence; and we add to this remark, with still more propability, that the head of Laocoon, which we have recently and closely examined, is in the same style with that of Menelaus, (an undoubted Grecian statue,) particularly in the forehead, and in the execution of the hair and the beard.

' *Lessing* opposes to this imaginary antiquity, the silence of the Grecian writers, and of *Pausanias* in particular; who would not have failed, says he, to have mentioned this *chef d'œuvre*. But, if it were one of the first monuments transported from Greece into Italy, ought we to be surprised that no notice has been taken of it by Grecian authors; and as to *Pausanias*, was he not posterior by a century to the epoch in which we know that the Laocoon adorned the mansion of Titus?

' We should conclude on adopting the sentiments of *Winckelmann*, and we should think that the chissel whence this *chef d'œuvre* proceeded was a surer guide in determining its age, than the equivocal phrase of an author who was very subject to this failing, and whose supposed meaning would at once be repugnant both to the traces of the art which we follow, and to the age of an inscription which has so direct a relation to the monument of the Laocoon: but, since the publication of this opinion by M. *Visconti* in his *Museo Pio*, he has examined the inscription cited by *Winckelmann*, and the form of the characters seems to him to present nothing which indicates the period of its production to have been anterior to that of the Emperors. Moreover, it is engraven on a blackish marble (*bigio*), the use of

of which is an indication not very favourable to *Winckelmann*'s opinion. In short, the continual comparisons which daily regulate experience, and which establish the agreement between principles which at first appeared isolated, have since inclined *Visconti* to think that this groupe really belongs to the age of the Emperors; and this conjecture is not founded, like that of *Lessing*, on the discussion of a doubtful text, which is susceptible of a different punctuation that would more or less favour this or that interpretation.

'We pass now to details for which we are not indebted to others.

'*Pliny* says that the groupe was sculptured out of a single block. It might have appeared such to him; since even *Raphael* saw but three pieces; *Mengs* counted five; and we add a sixth, namely, the plinth on which the altar rests, and to which the other pieces of the block are attached. This plinth might belong to the 15th century, but the casing (*l'encaissement*) of pieces of the block does not allow us to suppose that the support which the plinth furnishes made one piece with the altar. It must have constituted, then, a sixth piece in the antique.

'The first piece comprehends the body of the altar and the trunk of the statue of the father, to the middle of the left leg in the fold of the serpent, and a third of the right thigh behind the coil of the serpent.

'The 2d piece includes the front of the altar covered with drapery, the remainder of the thigh together with the right leg of the father, and the whole of the youngest son.

'The 3d piece comprehends the eldest son, with his drapery, of which the lower part is let into the plinth.

'The 4th piece forms the left leg of the father, the joint of which is visible under the coil of the serpent and the fastening in the plinth.

'The 5th piece makes the right arm of the father; and the hole for fastening the original cramp is visible in the shoulder.

'Lastly, The sixth piece is the plinth, on which rest the altar, the left leg of the father, and the eldest son.—

'We subjoin also some remarks on other particulars which have occurred to us after a critical examination of this monument.

'Towards the middle of the great dorsal muscle, the traces of a tenon are observable, the longitudinal direction of which proves that, instead of folding back on itself, as appears in the restored part, the serpent just terminated the length of the back of the Laocoon: which inclines us to think that the right arm was more bent towards the head, though without touching it; and that the fold of the serpent was shorter, and ought to have accompanied the arm to which it was perhaps adherent, so as to finish at the tenon of which the marks are visible in the great dorsal muscle. We have also observed that the leaves of the laurel, or of the olive, of which the crown is formed, are alternated by six hollows, in which probably were inserted berries of the laurel or olive in bronze.

'It has been remarked that the right leg of the eldest son is shorter than the left: but it seems not to have been noticed that the same inequality prevails in the two legs of the father. The right leg

of

of the eldest son measures 1 foot 6 inches, the left 1 foot 3 inches, 4 lines. Difference, 2 inches, 8 lines. The whole length of the left leg of the father is 2 feet 1 inch 2 lines, that of the right 2 feet, 2 lines. Difference, 1 inch.

'It has been supposed that this disproportion was intended to correct an error in vision, which must diminish in appearance the length of that leg, if this groupe were placed as it ought to be considerably below the eye: but it strikes us that then the same difficulty would occur respecting the short leg, which by the same optical effect must appear still shorter. Another reason then must be given; and since we cannot suppose that in nature so considerable a difference would occur, it is more probable that these arefaults of the artists. The tibia of the stretched-out leg of the Apollo is an inch longer than the other, and a still greater inequality is observable in the Diana. It might be still more difficult to assign the reason for one particularity which we have noticed in the right hand of the eldest of the sons; the thumb of which has three phalanges, or bones, instead of two. In examining also an obscure part of this *chef-d'œuvre*, by the light of a candle, we found, about the middle of the back of the altar, the following letters and date engraved,

W. P. B.
1574

'These are probably the initials of the name of some Northern traveller.

'The height of this groupe is 6 feet 9 inches, and its breadth is 6 feet 6 inches.'

Though the Laocoon is certainly the most valuable production of the chissel now in existence, the evidence of its antiquity, here produced, is not in favour of the supposition that it was executed in antient Greece. We may also remark that the passage quoted from the Æneid probably furnished the artists with the design; and it was executed in or subsequent to the time of Virgil. As to the quotation from Pliny, it is very evident, especially if it be taken in connection with the preceding sentence, that he speaks of the authors of the Laocoon with no marks by which they are, in any respect, discriminated from the other statuaries whom he enumerates. The comments on the several pieces of which the groupe is now composed prove that Pliny had not closely observed it: but we are not to conclude that it contained as many pieces in its original as in its restored state. Before modern amateurs criticize the antient masters of the chissel by the rule and compass, they should carefully investigate the mysteries of their art.

These 18 Nos. of the work contain 180 plates, which present more than the outline of the object represented, but with sufficient spirit and effect to give an idea of the original statue, bust, or basso relievo.

Moy. ART.

ART. XIII. *Plantes Equinoxiales*, &c.; *i. e.* Equinoctial Plants, collected at Mexico; in the Island of Cuba; in the Provinces of Caracca, Cumana, and Barcelona; on the Andes of New Granada, Quito, and Peru; and on the Banks of the Rio-Negro (or Negro River,) of the River Oroonoko, and of the River of the Amazons. By Al. DE HUMBOLDT and AIME BONPLAND. Imperial Folio. Nos. I. and II. Paris. 1805. London, De Boffe. Price 2l. 2s. per Number.

WERE we not to express satisfaction on receiving such works as this from the Continent, we must indicate either a want of interest in the progress of science, or a jealousy of the reputation of enlightened and enterprising foreigners. We are under no apprehension, however, that Messrs. HUMBOLDT and BONPLAND will suspect us of being influenced by such mean and despicable feelings. Indeed, we have sincere pleasure in all those undertakings which tend to advance the progress of knowlege; and we welcome those philosophers with our warmest gratulations, whose object is rather to collect facts than to create systems,—to extend our acquaintance with nature rather than to perplex us with the vagaries of opinion.

The French *savants*, to whom we owe the superb undertaking commenced in these numbers, are not entirely unknown to us. In noticing the *Annales du Muséum National* *, we made some amusing extracts from M. HUMBOLDT's correspondence from Peru and Quito; and our perusal of the letters induced us to hope that the researches of so intelligent a Naturalist would enlarge the scope of human science. Our hopes have not been vain; and we congratulate the lovers of Natural History on their being about to partake of the rich collection which Messrs. H. and B. have obtained in districts of the New World, rarely explored by Europeans. They remark, in the preface to this work, that

'The travels between the tropics, which we spent five years in performing, have conducted us into countries, a great part of which has never been visited by any other botanist. The unfortunate *Læfling* fell a victim to his zeal for the sciences, when he had gone no farther than the mouths of the Oroonoko; and the illustrious *Jacquin* traversed only the coasts of Venezula and Carthagena. More favoured by fortune than those celebrated botanists, whose labours have served us for a model, we have penetrated into the interior of South America, from the coast of the Caraccas to the frontiers of Brasil; and we endeavoured to direct our excursions towards those regions which have been least visited by Europeans. What a harvest

* See M.R. N.S. Vol. xlvii. p. 485.

of

of curious plants was reaped by us on the side of the calcareous chain of New Andalusia, in the valleys of Cumanacoa and Cocollar, and in the environs of the convent of Caripé; and moreover in those immense plains which separate the cultivated lands from the thick forests of Guiana! What new genera and species have we found in our painful navigation of the Oroonoko, the Cassiquiar, the Negroe river, and the streams of Temi, Tuamini, and Atabapo! In the plains of Carichana, in the vicinity of the cataracts of Aturés and Maypuré, and on the declivities of the granite mountains of Duida, situated towards the sources of the Oroonoko, regions which are moistened by continual rains, the ground is covered by a multitude of unknown vegetables; to ascertain the numbers and characters of which would require the labour of ages. In the region of the Andes of Quindiu and of Popayan and Pasto, on the borders of the Cauca, and on the elevated plain which extends from Almaguer to the city of Ibarra, we have collected some precious vegetables.

'The number of equinoctial plants obtained by us in the two hemispheres amounts to more than six thousand two hundred sorts. Those celebrated botanists who have examined our *Herbaria* have been surprized at the great number of new kinds which they have there discovered.'

These gentlemen, since their return to Europe, have been actively employed in examining, arranging, and classifying their botanical specimens. Impressed with the desire of furnishing the public, as soon as possible, with the fruit of their travels, and at the same time aware of the evil which might result from the too hasty execution of the whole undertaking, their proceedings are directed by zeal, chastized by caution. In the work which we now announce, they purpose to give designs and descriptions of equinoctial plants, without assigning them to a particular order; and when it is sufficiently advanced, and an attentive examination has been made of the contents of their *Herbaria*, then they intend to publish in Latin, and in an octavo form, without plates, an abridged description of all the species which they have displayed.

The first fasciculus contains two plates representing the *Ceroxylon andicola*; and subjoined is a memoir on this Palm, read by M. Bonpland to the first class of the Institute.

Fasciculus II. includes *Mastisia cordata*, Jussiæa *sediodes*, J. *natans*, *Myrtus microphylla*, *Freziera reticulata*, *F. canescens*, *F. chrysophylla*, *F. sericea*, *F. nervosa*, and *Cinchona conduminea*.

At the conclusion of the preface, M. Humboldt expresses peculiar obligations to his friend and coadjutor M. Bonpland; attributing to his genius and industry the greatest share of the work.

The paper and typography of this publication are truly beautiful, and the plates are extremely fine. Mo.y.

ART. XIV. *Recueil d'Observations, &c.. i.e.* A collection of Observations on Zoology and comparative Anatomy, made in the Atlantic Ocean, in the interior of the new Continent, and in the South Sea, during the years 1799—1803. By Al. DE HUMBOLDT and A. BONPLAND. The 1st Livraison, illustrated by six Plates. Imperial 4to. Paris. 1805. London, De Boffe, 18s.

THIS publication is intended to give the result of the voyages and travels of the above-mentioned ingenious philosophers, as they respect the particular branch of Zoology; since they were of opinion that it would be more beneficial to the study of Natural History to form their scientific remarks into distinct volumes, than to blend them with the narrative of their adventures. The first memoir of this work treats on *the os hyoïdes and the larynx of birds and apes, and of the crocodile*, which is long, and illustrated by plates. The second gives an account of *a new species of ape, found on the eastern side of the Andes*, called SIMIA LEONINA. The third relates to *the Eremophilus and Astroblepus, two new genera of the order of Apodes*; and the fourth and last in the number before us is intitled, *On a new species of Pimelode thrown out by the Volcanoes in the kingdom of Quito.* As this subject will probably excite the surprise of the reader, we shall transcribe a part of the account here given of this very singular phænomenon. Volcanoes, in general, vomit stones, cinders, boiling water, &c. but this philosopher informs us that

'The volcanoes in the kingdom of Quito present from time to time a different spectacle, less alarming, indeed, though not less curious to the naturalist. The grand explosions are periodical, but not very frequent. The Cotopaxi, the Tunguragua, and the Sangay do not experience one of these eruptions in the course of twenty or thirty years: but, in the intervals, these same volcanoes discharge enormous quantities of argillaceous mud, and, which is more striking to the imagination, innumerable quantities of *fish*. It so happened that these volcanic inundations did not take place in the year which I passed on the Andes of Quito: but ejected fish constitute a phænomenon so common, and so generally known to all the inhabitants of the country, that there cannot remain the least doubt of the fact; and as these regions contain many well informed persons, who are occupied in the pursuit of the physical sciences, I have been able to obtain exact drawings of these fish. M. *de Larrea*, who is versed in the study of chemistry, and who has formed a cabinet of the minerals of his country, has been very useful to me in these researches. In the archives of several little towns in the vicinity of Cotopaxi, I have found some notes respecting the fish thrown out by the volcanoes. On the estates of the Marquis *de Selvaligre*, the Cotopaxi emitted so great a quantity of them, that their putrefaction diffused a fœtid odour all around. The almost extinct volcano of Imbaburu, in the year 1691, vomited some millions of them on the fields which surround the city of Ibarra; and

the

the putrid fevers, which commenced at this period, were attributed to the miasmata which exhaled from these fish, lying in heaps on the surface of the ground, and exposed to the action of the sun. In more recent times, the Imbaburu has ejected fish; and when, on June 19, 1698, the volcano of Cargneirazo subsided, thousands of these animals, enveloped in argillaceous mud, issued from the top, which was shaken down.

'The Cotopaxi and Tunguragua sometimes throw out fish at the crater which is at the top of these mountains, and sometimes at the lateral openings, but constantly at an elevation of two thousand six hundred toises (5200 yards) above the level of the sea.—Some Indians have assured me that the fish which issued from the volcanoes were sometimes alive when they came down the sides of the mountain: but this fact is not sufficiently confirmed: it is however certain that, among the thousands of dead fish which in the course of a few hours are seen descending from Cotopaxi with large quantities of cold and soft water, very few of them are so much disfigured as to induce the belief that they have been exposed to the action of a strong heat. This fact becomes more striking, when we consider the soft flesh of these animals, and the thick smoke which this volcano emits at the same time. I esteemed it an interesting circumstance to descriptive natural history, to ascertain the nature of these animals. All the inhabitants agree that they are the same with those that are found in the streams which run at the foot of these volcanoes, and which they call *prennadillas*; which is also the only kind of fish to be found at an elevation of fourteen hundred toises, in the waters of the kingdom of Quito.'

The *prennadilla* has been supposed to be a new species of the genus *Silurus*: but *La Cépède* has classed it under the *pimelodes*: it is here called *pimelodus cyclopum*; and a representation of it is given in one of the plates.

We shall attempt no remarks on these fish-vomiting volcanoes. If the fact can be credited, it is curious, and might lead to a train of speculations: but we have our suspicions of the accuracy of the relation; which rests not on the testimony of these naturalists, but on the report of the inhabitants, who might not be able to observe with sufficient discrimination, or who might endeavour to cajole the European travellers. We do not contradict M. HUMBOLDT; we only doubt.

The several publications, which these gentlemen are now sending from the press, are intended to form one large work under the general title of *Voyage de M. M.* ALEXANDRE DE HUMBOLDT and AMIE BONPLAND: but they make their first appearance separately; consisting of the *Botanical* work noticed in the preceding article, the *Zoological* details before us, a series of *Astronomical* observations, and an Essay on the *Geography of Plants*; the two latter of which we have not yet seen. Mo-y.

ART. XV. *Histoire générale des Sciences*, &c. *i. e.* A general History of the Sciences, and of Literature, from times antecedent to the Grecian History, to the present day. By the Abbé JEAN ANDRES, a Jesuit, Member of the Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Mantua. Translated from the Italian, with Additions Supplements, and Notes, by J. E. ORTOLANI, Ex-Commissary of the French Government for inquiries into the Arts and Sciences, &c. Vol. I. 8vo. Paris. 1805. London, De Boffe. Price 7s. sewed.

WE are informed by the translator of this work that the original is well known, and celebrated, in France and England: but we must acknowlege that its fame has never reached our ears; and that, now we are acquainted with it, we do not feel disposed to join the chorus of commendation.

It may, perhaps, be conceded that the performance bears strong marks of great reading and laborious research; and that it gives testimony of the multifarious attainments of its author. These, however, are circumstances perfectly distinct from the utility of the work; and for our part, having perused the present volume, which commences with an account of Indian and Chaldean Literature, and thence examines the state and progress of Philosophy, Natural History, Theology, Jurisprudence, in short of every branch of Science and of Literature, in every country and through successive periods, till the rapid course through 233 pages stops at the 19th century; we found our attention distracted, and our memory oppressed with the tedious enumeration of dates of books and of authors.—In our opinion, the volume cannot be perused with much hope of instruction, and it is ill calculated for a book of reference.—We select a passage in which, compared with others, the information is rather detailed and expanded.

'Matters belonging to the exact Sciences have been treated with equal grace and precision by *Fontenelle:* the Natural History of *Buffon* is read with as much pleasure as a poem: *Bailly*, in his history of Astronomy, has displayed all the charms of style: the elocution of *J. J. Rousseau* has a magic in it which enchants his readers; and *Voltaire*, by his attic salt, by his grace, by his *finesse*, seduces all minds. The vigorous and elegant poetry of Pope, and the easy prose and good taste of Addison, have given new fame to English Literature: but its real glory proceeds from its historians: I speak not of the great undertaking of the Universal History and the History of Travels, of which the merit consists rather in the erudition than in the elegance of the style: I confine my assertion to the history of David Hume, and to those of Robertson and Gibbon: these celebrated authors have struck into a track unknown to the antients, &c.'

From such passages, can a reader, who is unacquainted with the authors, &c. mentioned, gain any knowlege worth keeping?

The

This publication issues from the *imperial press:* which perhaps is open to all authors: but, if the liberty of using it depends on favor and interest, the present author has shewn himself not ungrateful for his privilege, since he takes more than one opportunity of complimenting the Emperor *Napoleon.*

R.W.

ART. XVI. *Annales de l' Empire Français,* &c. *i. e.* Annals of the French Empire, by a Society of Men of Letters. Vol. I. First Year. Edited by R DE BEAUNOIR and A. H. DAMPMARTIN, 8vo. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 9s. sewed.

IF in military matters the French discover conduct and heroism which did not heretofore belong to them, we do not find that they are divested of the levity and frivolity by which they have been in all ages characterized. On the contrary, never do they seem to have found more facility in flying from one extreme to another. How short a time has passed since republican representations threw them into the wildest raptures, and all were the disciples of the goddess of Reason, zealots for the sovereignty of the people, and advocates for the rights of man: yet now this mania is as much out of fashion as the *Fronde* or the League. Nothing suits their present taste but imperial and royal pomp; all insist on the necessity of religion, all applaud the unity of the supreme authority, all plead for hereditary succession; and no sooner is an *Emperor* made, than the history of the *Empire* is advertised;—though it has existed only a few months, its annals are announced! Are a people of this fickle cast destined to command the world?—are they to be the models of mankind?

When we read the title page of the volume before us, we could not conjecture what were its contents. The imbecility of the cabinet of Vienna had not then opened a career for the hero, the strange events of which might blazon the first pages of the imperial history; and diatribes against England, and the movements of gun-boats, constituted the sum of the imperial achievements, to the epoch of the appearance of the Imperial Annals. We found, however, that the volume was wholly preliminary; forming a summary of the history of France from the origin of the monarchy to the assumption of the imperial dignity by *Napoleon Bonaparte.* This is the work of M. DAMPMARTIN, and we must admit that it is executed with much spirit and striking neatness. The writer is by no means a tame narrator; and he is so far from surrendering his judgment to that of others, that, if he errs, it is on the score of singularity. He is not contented to retail the observations which he finds in pre-

ceding authors, but seems disposed to run into paradoxes rather than to forego originality in his remarks. If he be not a sure guide, he is calculated to rouse reflection, and to call forth a spirit of inquiry;—if his readers will be cautious of reposing confidence in him, they will listen to him with attention, and will be pleased with his remarks:—if his composition be not strictly and elaborately correct, it affords a very lively picture of French history, in which the leading traits are true, and the general likeness is preserved.

Let the following sketch suffice to give an idea of the sort of pencil which this artist uses:

'The war of the *Fronde* is scarcely known but under a ridiculous aspect; and the grand *Condé*, though he was one of the principal actors in it, said that it ought only to be sung in burlesque verses. The *Fronde*, a bloody parody on the *League*, exposes to view two truths; a degeneracy in public men, and the extinction of the power of the second order. The *Guises* knew how to cover their ambitious designs with a mantle of grandeur: and their views aimed at nothing short of the throne. Magnificent Princes, noble even when practising popular arts, Generals of the first rank, and profound statesmen, they impressed with respect the people whom they duped by their artifices; they were held in consideration by their enemies, and received as allies by foreign sovereigns; and they had talents and address sufficient to cause the League to be admitted as one among the powers of Europe.

'The chiefs of the agitators who disturbed the minority of Louis XIV. were factious subalterns, whose turbulence was soon treated with general contempt. The Coadjutor, in adopting the measures and views that are preserved in his memoirs, which contain some sublime passages, possessed beyond all doubt superior talents; but, turbulent, unequal, impetuous, profligate, and passionately vain-glorious, he expected to rise to the rank of a great man by framing petty intrigues Endowed with too little reflection to combine a vast plan, he committed himself so much to chance, that in more than one case he was unable to state what was the object to which his proceedings tended. He had the sagacity, however, to discover that the noblesse, if left to themselves, were incapable of achieving any enterprize. He procured the assistance of the parliament; which corps, hurt by the coldness of the Regent, and flattered so much by the disaffected, hoisted the standard of revolt. The energy of the venerable *Molé* was unable to resist the redoubled impulses of the clamorous courts; and the soul of all the deliberations was the counsellor *Quatre Sous*, a man of great resources, and of sufficient daring to insist on the Prince of *Condé* making an apology, for a too familiar gesture used by him in the presence of the assembled legislature. Decrees, multiplied beyond all bounds, grew to be so absurd, as to deprive them in a great degree of effect. This faction, finding itself too weak, though it consisted of courtiers and members of the parliament, sought to increase its strength by making a common cause with the populace; and the Duke of *Beaufort* and the President *Broussel* were appointed to engage this power-

powerful support. The Duke affected familiarity with the lowest classes, courted the *poissardes*, and was denominated king of the markets: while *Broussel* owed his influence over the populace to his grey hairs.

'As soon as *Mazerin* displayed a firmness of conduct, the factious were dispersed. The Coadjutor expiated his errors, by an imprisonment of a few months in the castle of Vincennes; and, afterward, concealed under the Roman purple, and under the title of Cardinal *de Retz*, he led an obscure life, which was very contrary to his inclination and taste. An exile of a short duration removed the most violent partisans of the *Fronde*. The parliament was confined within narrow limits, which it only once (in 1665) in the reign of Louis XIV. attempted to break: this Prince, as yet young, went in boots with his whip in his hand, into the midst of the assembled courts, and pronounced his will in a tone which displayed the *hauteur* of his character, and against which no person dared to murmur.'

Let us again witness the exercise of the author's powers on a nice and difficult subject.

'Louis XIV. presents himself to the imagination solely as surrounded by a groupe of great men, in all classes and professions, who, in their brilliant successes, seemed only emulous to invest their protector with immortal glory. He advanced as far as the hyperborean regions, in order to insure titles to public gratitude; he knew how to praise with delicacy; and he possessed in the highest degree the talent of wearing his crown with dignity. But the weight of his grandeur levelled all conditions; and the shades which marked the different classes of society vanished in his presence like chimeras. Favour alone effected every thing under him, but contrived to sell part of these advantages to wealth; at this epoch, the French Monarch raised a subject to the summit of grandeur, or plunged him into the abyss of obscurity, by a single word, or even by a look.

'He did not think that it became his dignity to sport with the dangers of war; and he supplied, in fact, the enthusiasm which his valour would have created by flattering discourses. The troops never heard him repeat the saying, which he often uttered with that imposing and noble grace which characterized his speeches, without lively emotions: "I honour myself that I am the oldest soldier in my army."

'When he saw the monarchy threatened with imminent danger, he did not limit himself within vain words, but established his claim to the sirname of *Grand*, by displaying, at the age of seventy-four, the spirit of a hero in the flower of his days. He said to *Villars*, who was setting out to take the command of an army harassed by long fatigue, and discouraged by numerous reverses, yet, at the same time, the sole support of the state: "If you are beaten, write to me instantly: and immediately I will mount my horse, and, with your letter in my hand, beat up the streets of Paris:—I know the French:—more than a hundred thousand combatants will follow my steps. If misfortune still pursues us, I will assemble my nobility, and at its head I will either seize upon victory, or bury myself under the ruins of my kingdom."

The tory administration of Queen Anne rescued him from this hard fate.'

Some of the observations made by M. DAMPMARTIN, on the rise and fall of Dynasties, are not unworthy of notice. He is speaking of states:

'Remedies calculated for the wants of the moment produce, for a time, salutary effects, and seem to promise eternal duration to the body politic: but the evils being only qualified, and not removed, their destructive operation continues silently advancing. Behold an antient and majestic edifice, which the storms of successive ages, which original defects and the repeated neglects of its owners, threaten with approaching ruin; if the character called to repair it does not apply his labours to its foundations, but simply confines himself to decorate its exterior, the vulgar may be struck with admiration, but the enlightened man is not carried away by the false glare; his eye penetrates beneath the outside facing, and discerns the hollow rents which foretell the speedy downfal of the building.

'The founder of a new race raises himself by his courage, his prudence, and his policy. The lot of unfortunate princes whom the sword cuts down, or who languish under the deprivation of their honors, points out to him the line which he ought to pursue; and an opposite course leads him to different results. Under his reign, agriculture is cherished, commerce revives, the army displays a valour which discipline increases, justice presides in the tribunals; in one word, the whole state recovers a new vigour, order reigns in its interior, and strangers pay to it the respect which it had forfeited. For some generations, his successors are the inheritors as well of his talents as of his virtues; for the impulse, given by a superior genius, diminishes only by degrees. But the courtiers, whom the storm had dispersed, recover from their terror; they recur to their pernicious practices; they enter on the scene with an appearance of reserve and moderation, which imperfectly conceals their ambitious designs; and becoming in time the real masters, they transform the sovereign into an idol, whom they intoxicate with incense, while his hands are tied up by flattery and intrigue. In infancy, designing preceptors too often arrest the good propensities of the royal pupils, feed their failings, and extinguish all the germs of energy. In youth, their passions are excited and satisfied; and their physical and moral faculties are exhausted, before time has fully developed them. In riper years, plunged in luxury, separated from truth as by an iron wall, without any knowlege of men and things, they prolong an apathy which often presses as heavily on them, as it proves pernicious to their subjects. In old age, they become the sport of those who approach them, and terminate in bitterness and contempt their too long career.'

M. DAMPMARTIN goes through all the stages of declension, but our limits will not permit us to accompany him.

The authors promise, in their annals, to follow the purest models, to cultivate strict impartiality, and to respect truth alone: but the idolatry with which they regard the present

chief

chief of the state, and the sentiments which they profess towards this country, do not argue well for the faithful observance of their plausible assurances. At all events, however, if the work be conducted with the ability of which it now affords a sample, even though it should not be free from many alloys, it will be acceptable on various accounts. **Jo.**

ART. XVII. *Mélanges de Littérature*, &c. Literary Miscellanies. By M. SUARD. Vol. V.

[See Appendix to Vol XLVII. p. 520.]

THE concluding volume of this agreeable and instructing publication commences with strictures on the life and character of Tasso. M. SUARD observes that men of letters, being no longer employed in public affairs, and avoiding by choice the intrigues of the world, now usually devote themselves to sedentary occupations; which, while they employ the mind, secure them from the dangers of ambition and the vicissitudes of fortune. Their life therefore is in general tranquil and uniform; agitated at times by those minor passions which may interrupt happiness, but rarely disturbed by those interests which distract society. The author proceeds:

'When times were very different, if a man appeared who had received from nature that ardent imagination which constitutes the poet, and that extreme sensibility which renders the temper irritable; if, besides, he united to these qualities of mind those singularities which often accompany talents; if this person was also exposed to the intrigues of courts, and the storms of revolutions, it frequently happened that the triumph of the poet was arrested by the reverses of the courtier. Imagine his superior talents to have created him as many enemies as admirers: suppose him impelled by the desire of glory, impatient to enjoy it, and thrown off his guard by the obstacles which obstruct his career; we may conceive that such a man, in the course of a short life, may have experienced all the alternatives of glory and abasement, of joy and sorrow, of prosperity and misfortune, in a degree that imparts an interest to his history which does not belong to that of men in general. A nature such as we have described, and circumstances such as we have supposed, distinguished the celebrated person whose sketch is here drawn.'

After these general remarks, the author presents us with the particulars of the life of this celebrated writer: but we pass over these as common in all books of biography, and shall confine ourselves to M. SUARD's own observations and criticisms. He justly states that what particularly distinguishes the man of genius is that secret impulse, which draws him, as it were in spite of himself, towards those pursuits which are the

the most proper to exercise the activity of his mind, and the energies of his intellectual faculties. It is a species of instinct which no force can overcome, and which elevates itself the more in proportion to the resistance with which it meets. It is not a little curious that two other great poets of Italy were, like Tasso, educated for the law, and like him refused to be diverted from their favourite pursuit.

'The understanding of Tasso may be regarded as having been not less solid than his imagination was ardent; nor was his taste for philosophy inferior to his fondnes for poetry. It was this union of wisdom and poetic fervour which gave to his writings a character that eminently distinguishes him from the best poets of his country and his age.'

Italian poetry was at this date in its infancy. The *Italia Liberata* of *Trissin* had for some time made its appearance: but it had no merit except that of being well conceived; it was prosaic and inharmonious.

'The *Orlando Furioso* was also before the public. Its author had not attempted to send forth a regular performance; he had chosen for the subject of his poem, not an historical event which confines the genius, but the adventures of chivalry; popular topics, conformable to the taste of the times, and favourable to all the displays of a lively and brilliant imagination; which, admitting of a mixture of the heroic and the playful, allowed the poet to use every species of tone, and every sort of colouring that belongs to poetry.

'The imagination of *Tasso*, less original, and less fertile, perhaps, than that of *Ariosto*, was regulated by a more pure taste, and by sounder principles; by a deeper study of the resources of the art, and by a more eorrect feeling of the just and the beautiful. He had followed the precept of Horace; it was in the school of the philosophers that he perfected the talent which he had reeeived from nature; and, passionately devoted to Homer, he learned to imitate him by studying Plato.

'Scarcely was any object the theme of attention at this time except the *Orlando Furioso*. The verses of *Ariosto* were every where committed to memory, repeated and sung in the country as well as in cities, by the shepherd in the midst of his flock and by the waterman who rowed his gondola; in the literary acadamies not less than in fashionable parties. Yet this prodigious success did not prevent men of taste from being shocked by the incongruities of this strange mixture of incidents without connection, of adventures destitute of probability and often even of decency.

'Tasso rose superior to the bad taste of the age; he did not suffer himself to be carried away by the success of the brilliant follies of the *Orlando Furioso*, nor to be discouraged by the disgust which the insipid regularity of the *Italia Liberata* had excited. The superiority of his genius, and the maturity of his judgment, appear from this; that the praises which his *Rinaldo* had every where experienced did not render

render him blind to the defects of this happy first attempt; and though very young, he saw that he must pursue a different course. One of his letters shews that he judged himself far more severely than the public had criticised him.

'Scarcely had he finished his first poem, before he conceived the plan of that which was to establish his fame. He became sensible that he must connect the epic machinery with an important historical event, in order to endue it with real grandeur and permanent interest. He also perceived that historic truth was not the first object of poetry; and that an action, the most interesting in itself, requires all the embellishment which it can derive from chaste invention, and from harmonious language, in order at once to fix the attention of the mind, to charm the imagination, and to delight the senses. He judged the conquest of the the holy land by Godfrey of Bouillon to be a subject in every respect fit for an epopee.

'In order to inform himself the more fully respecting the ground over which he proposed to travel, he resolved to study afresh the principles of his art. With this view, he composed three discourses on heroic poetry, which furnish perhaps the first instance of rules which have preceded the model. *Corneille*, it is true, composed discourses on dramatic poetry, which contained the best precepts of the art: but he wrote them after his tragedies; and they were the result of the experience of a long life, founded on his labours, and on the successes and reverses which he had experienced.'

We reluctantly forbear to accompany M. SUARD in his continued view of the life of *Tasso*, and of the progress of his celebrated poem: but a necessary regard to brevity constrains us to break the thread.—It is well known that the political connections of the poet interrupted his repose, injured his health, and shortened his days. In fine, observes the author,

'Such was the lot of Tasso, a prince among men of letters, yet the most wretched of human beings! He may be instanced as one of the most illustrious victims that have signalized the triumphs of the Muses over the pursuits of gain, and worldly consideration. Had he listened to the sage precepts of his father, he would have been in his day the admiration of the Roman, Neapolitan, or Ferrarese courts of law, but would have been little known without the precincts of the one or the other of these small states, and all the memorials of him would long ago have perished: but he probably would have reached to a good old age, in affluence and honor, have proved the solace of an aged parent, and have been surrounded by an affectionate and grateful offspring.'— —

Another subject now calls for our attention.—English readers, at least, will not impeach the sound judgment of the writer who has hazarded the following observations, taken from a paper which treats on the administration of justice in England, and which first made its appearance in 1790.—'I congratulate myself,' says M. Suard, 'in having lived long enough to hear it said by some of our legislators, that the English never possessed liberty;—that is without

out doubt a noble ambition which seeks to be more free than they are. As for myself, a disciple of Locke and Montesquieu, I cannot allow myself this proud disdain for my masters in politics; and I tremble lest those, who do not see liberty where it exists, will search for it where it cannot be.'—Never was apprehension better founded.

'Let it not be thought (continues the author) that my admiration of the English constitution is exclusive and unqualified. I have studied it sufficiently to discern not only that it labours under great defects, but also under great vices; which are for the most part reliques of that barbarous feudality, which has left its traces on the manners and institutions of all modern nations. I have also noticed, at the same time, that these vices produce none of the bad effects which might be expected from them. I have looked for the cause of this, and I have found it in that energetic sentiment of liberty which animates every bosom, which corrects and purifies every noxious influence, and which confines all the powers within their proper limits. This principle of life in the political body is supported by the free communication of ideas; by that restless jealousy which is natural to a free people; and even by the passions which a party spirit creates. While this subsists, liberty will have nothing to fear: if it is ever extinguished, it will be destroyed by a general corruption of manners, and then the people will not deserve to be free.

'It is in the administration of justice in England, above all, that the influence of this public spirit is sensibly seen. The civil law (he means the common and statute) is obscure, vague, embarrassed by minute forms, and expressed in barbarous terms: but the judges are enlightened, assiduous, and expeditious, as much so as their great respect for the forms will permit them. The penal code is severe, but its execution is full of humanity.

'I have noticed that most persons in France draw all their information respecting the consitution of England from the treatise of *de Lolme*: but one or two works on so great a subject, however excellent they may be, can give only superficial ideas of it. It is in the midst of the English themselves, it is in beholding their tribunals, in perusing those large piles of good books which they have produced, by living with their public characters and learned men, and by attending carefully to the course of events among them, that we can attain to a correct knowlege of their laws and of their good and bad effects; and even with all these means of instruction, a stranger, who has not spent part of his life in England, very soon reaches the limits of his knowlege.

'If a man of genius, in consequenee of such reflections, should conceive a plan of judicial organization, which will always ensure judges who should be upright, most enlightened, and inaccessible to intrigue and corruption; who, being as few in number as possible, dispense justice with as much promptness as impartiality; and who inspire with confidence and respect the people over whom they exercise the judicial power, which is so terrible in almost all the countries of the earth; however solid the grounds on which this theory might

might be founded, the soundest minds would have some right to distrust it, and they would require that the fair speculation should be submitted to the test of experience. If I should say that there is a people among whom this speculation is completely realized, I should be asked, what part of the globe do they inhabit? Well and good! This people is close to us; there is not any whose history, government, laws, and customs it is more easy to know; and thousands of witnesses may be adduced to confirm what I have advanced.'

We have certainly paid great attention to M. SUARD, and his collections have detained us no inconsiderable time. We can however assert that this has not been occasioned, in any degree, by the favourable opinion which he expresses in this disquisition of our constitution and laws, aud of the spirit of our countrymen. Our testimony to the candour of his nature, the fairness of his mind, the soundness of his discrimination, and his ability in judging, had been borne before this paper reached us; which, treating a subject on which we did not expect to derive information from him, was actually the last in the collection that we perused. We are as much gratified as any of our fellow citizens can be by such compliments paid to us by eminent foreigners; may we, as a people, continue to deserve them; and if they are less applicable at this than at some former periods, let all ground for such an observation speedily disappear! We find it very happily described by the author what is the palladium of every free state; and never may Britain be deprived of this safeguard of freedom! We allude to the following passage, which we have above translated; '*ce sentiment énergique de liberté, qu' anime toutes les ames, qui corrige & purifie toutes les mauvaises influences, qui retient tous les pouvoirs dans leurs limites.*' This he most properly terms '*le principe de vie du corps politique.*'

We meet in this volume with an abstract of some ingenious unpublished comments on the works of Horace by the Abbé *Galliani*. In an introduction, M. SUARD observes;

'In order to understand the antients, it is not sufficient to read many manuscripts, to compare them together, and to accumulate citations and passages: but it is necessary above all to reflect deeply on their style, the turn of mind and fancy which distinguish them, the circumstances in which they were placed when they wrote, the motives which determined them, and the ends which they had in view. We ought to make ourselves acquainted with the religion, manners, and usages of their time, the niceties of their language, and still more its connection with their manners. It cannot be dissembled that in this respect the Italian nation has great advantages over all others. Most of the objects which surround it, the monuments, the inscriptions, every thing unceasingly offers to it the inducement and the means of informing itself, with regard to the usages and customs of the

the antient inhabitants of that country. Besides, its language, which essentially is very nearly the same with that of the people among the Latins, invites it and assists it to determine the precise meaning of many of the words, turns, and phrases of the antient tongue; that is to say, to form just ideas of those objects and thoughts which the terms and expressions represented; while what it retains of the Roman usages and customs assists it better to apprehend the character of their language, and the true force of its idiom and phraseology.'

The author remarks that, with the exception of the Abbé *Galliani*, the Italians have little availed themselves of their superior advantages in this respect.

As our limits will not permit us to advert to the conjectural emendations, the authoritative corrections, and the elucidations of the text, which the view here given of the Abbé's labours contains, we shall merely observe that they will highly gratify the man of taste and the scholar. We must, however, request the attention of our readers to the Abbé's account of the Greek Tragedy:

'The Greek Tragedy was a religious act, directed and regulated by the priests. It was a representation of the most striking parts of their mythology, and exhibited to view awful and marvellous instances of the vengeance of heaven against heinous crimes. It described the darkness and the errors into which men were led by the passions when unsubdued. In exciting terror on the one hand, or tenderness on the other, the poet was solely desirous to inspire the people with a love of virtue, and a horror of vice. Therefore, in order to give us a just idea of the Greek Tragedy, we must compare the antient dramas not with those of *Corneille* and *Racine*, but rather with the religious representations intitled *the Plays of the Passion of our Lord Jesus Christ*. The principal objects, then, of the Greek Tragedy were morality and instruction. The poets and the priests of Greece felt that it was not sufficient to present an exhibition in which vice was punished, and virtue rewarded; they saw that it was farther necessary, for the sake of the multitude, to intermix with the course of the events an abundance of maxims and moral sentences; without which the crowd, opening its eyes and ears, but not making a single reflection, would not have derived from these exhibitions the advantages proposed. I have seen, in my own country, a representation of the passion of our Saviour exhibited in a church at the great altar; at the conclusion of each mystery, a person delivered discourses suitable to the subject which had been displayed; and sometimes he would interrupt the representation in order to introduce remarks applicable to what was taking place. Such was very nearly the province of the chorus in the antient tragedy; which was to tragedy what the *air* is to the Italian Operas; it was the substance of that which had been exhibited, accompanied with such reflections as they wished to be made by the audience.

'We clearly perceive, then, that the chorus considerably obstructed the illusion: but this illusion, though essential in exhibitions the objects

objects of which are pleasure and amusement, is an inferior consideration when the principal end in view is instruction. Consider the fables of Esop; what is so improbable as the speeches of beasts? So much the better for the fable; it shines and strikes the more.

'It follows hence that, since instruction has ceased to be the chief aim of theatrical representations, the chorus would in course be suppressed. Every effort which we have seen made to revive them has proved unsuccessful; and this has happened because they weaken the dramatic effect, as well as because the authors did not know when to introduce them, nor how to employ them.

'In order to assist the effect of the chorus, which was the most important object of the Greek Tragedy, it was accompanied by more intense and animated music; and in consequence it made use of the lyric metre. The iambic verse, which proceeded very nearly like prose, perfectly suited the recitative: but for this reason its effect was inconsiderable; whereas the short and lively measure of the lyric verses, and their division into strophes and antistrophes, gave them more of action and of warmth, and rendered them more easy to be retained. It follows from these observations that the choruses of the Greeks, or the genuine airs of the Italian Operas, or rather the airs of *Metastasio*, are the true chorus; with this only difference that, in the pieces of the modern dramatist, it is the actor himself who at the end of the scene makes the epilogue, determines the sentiment fit for the situation, and explains the morality which it teaches; whereas in the antient pieces the same part is filled by an imaginary personage. Euripides and Metastasio have both written the recitative in verses approaching to prose, and the chorus and the airs in sonorous and lyrical verses: both have divided the air into first and second parts, strophes, and antistrophes; both have disengaged the recitative from moral maxims, in order to introduce them in the chorus or the airs; and both have produced the same effect. They have in truth each relaxed the interest felt, by weakening the illusion: but they have carried farther the moral sentiments, and more deeply impressed the minds of people with them. There are not ten men in Italy who can recite a single stanza of the recitative of the exquisite modern Roman dramatist, while scarcely a person is unable to chant three or four hundred of his airs. The same was the case with Euripides; all antiquity bears witness to the fact.

'The French Tragedies are of a sort totally different; forming a mean between the dialogue and the chorus. The versification of the French drama is neither sufficiently prosaic, nor sufficiently poetic; it can neither be sung nor spoken. The Italian recitative, as the Greek iambics formerly did, resists music properly so called: but the airs, like the antient chorus, can only be sung, for such is the nature of lyric verse. In the French Tragedies, the moral reflections are neither reserved for the end of the scene, nor sung by the chorus: but they are mixed with the dialogue, which is thus deprived of animation and precision.

'I presume not to determine which of these two styles is to be preferred; whether that of Euripides and Metastasio, or that of *Corneille* and *Racine*. Each has its defects and advantages. The French

Tragedies

'Tragedies poessess more interest, while the Greek and the Italian are more instructive. The illusion also is better preserved in the former; it is true that the versification makes the dialogue seem unnatural, but, as this pervades the whole drama, the defect is less felt. The Greek and Italian recitatives are nature itself: but the divisions into which they are broken, by the chorus and the airs, materially impair the probability. The action is sometimes very animated, and sometimes very languid. In fine, the Greek and Italian Tragedies have recourse to music instead of excluding it, while the French performances solely rely on their own proper strength and effect.'

We now dismiss this elegant and informing compilation, with our sincere acknowlegements for the pleasure and improvement which we have derived from the editor's labours, in the discharge of our public duty. It is possible that the present scarcity of good literature may have occasioned our dwelling longer on these productions than we should otherwise have done: but we can assure the reader that, in any circumstances, their genuine merits would have secured them consideration, and have intitled them to a more than ordinary share of our notice. *Jo.*

ART. XVIII. *Manuel du Muséum Français,* &c.; *i. e.* A Manual of the French Museum, with an analytical and explanatory Description of each Picture, exhibited in outline Etchings; the whole classed according to the Schools of the Works of the great Masters. By F. E. T. M. D. L. I. N. 8vo. Imported by De Boffe.

WE have already noticed a splendid folio, and also a handsome quarto edition of engravings copied from the pictures in the Central Museum at Paris; and in order that persons of humble fortune might be accommodated with representations of these wonders of the pictorial art, behold an humble edition in octavo is prepared. (See also p. 522.) These sketches are on a very small scale; and when the picture happens to be crowded with objects, they are confused and unsatisfactory. They may serve as reminiscences: but, to persons who have never surveyed the originals, they can afford only a faint idea of their merit and beauty.—Five Numbers of this publication work are now before us; the first containing, of the French School, the works of Poussin; the second, of the Italian School, the works of Dominichino; the third, of the Flemish School, the works of Rubens; the fourth, of the Italian School, the works of Raphael; and the fifth, of the French School, the works of Le Brun.

The remarks on the excellencies and defects of the paintings, from which these humble etchings are taken, are judicious: but it is unnecessary to make any extracts from this work, to shew the style in which the French criticisms are conducted. *Moy.*